HISTORY OF SANSKRIT POETICS

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To
The Memory of
My Father

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PREFACE

The first edition of this work was published in two separate volumes in 1923, 1925. Almost simultaneously in 1923 appeared the second edition of the Sāhitya-darpana by Mahāmahopādyāya Dr P. V. Kane, to which was prefixed an introduction of 177 pages dealing with the history of Alamkāra literature, subsequently elaborated in the third edition (1951) into 423 pages. Referring to these facts Dr Kane writes: "Both of us were thus practically pioneers in this field. Our books led many scholars to study the numerous works on Alamkāra, to point out defects and mistakes, to produce papers dealing with several aspects of the Alankāraśāstra and to publish several important texts." This will make clear the necessity of revising the present work, which was written and published independently, but which, not yet superseded, had been out of print for more than thirty years.

The scope of the present work was sufficiently explained in the preface to the first edition. An attempt has been made to approach the subject from the historical point of view, instead of presenting a bare account of the works and authors or a mere epitome of the different topics of Alamkāra. Presuming a general knowledge and taking the representative writers (and, as far as necessary, the neglected commentators and so-called minor writers), the development of Sanskrit Poetics has been traced through its fairly long and varied course of history, which covers an extensive literature of more than a thousand years. The first volume of the work, therefore, deals with the preliminary but important question of a working Chronology and original Sources, on the basis of which the second volume proceeds to set forth the history through divergent Systems and Theories. It will be seen that, barring some rearrangement

and division into chapters, the general form of the first edition has not been changed; but for convenience the two volumes are now published in one, divided into parts.

In investigating the growth of Sanskrit Poetics it was, of course, not possible to ignore its content; but it has been thought more useful to lay stress on the essentials of doctrines and omit minor details, the object of this work being more historical than expository. It was not possible, for instance, to give a detailed technical analysis of individual rhetorical "figures", with which the Alamkāra-śāstra is traditionally and popularly associated; but the general doctrine of poetic figures has been dealt with, in so far as they are not mere tickets of nomenclature but positive agents in the production of artistic beauty. The study of analytical Rhetoric, apart from its value as a formal discipline, may be regarded as pedantic and futile; but Sanskrit Alamkāra-śātra, in spite of its name, possesses a speculative interest by involving, besides mere Rhetoric, a great deal of what is known to-day as Criticism or Aesthetic. It was almost impossible for the Alamkarikas, concerned that they were with form and technique, not to be interested in the general phenomenon of literature or theorise on general principles.

For a similar reason of historical and general treatment greater emphasis has been laid on the earlier writers who cover the creative periods of the discipline; of later writers who show in the main an excessive dependence on their predecessors, only typical names have been selected with a due regard to their historical as well as intrinsic importance. The author has confined himself to Sanskrit Poetics, and has not taken into account the numerous vernacular works on the subject, as well as the allied but distinct theme of Dramaturgy; for they deserve more room for a detailed and separate treatment. The Bibliographies and references are perhaps not exhaustive; but they are meant to supply such notable information as might lead to a further study.

A word of explanation may be deemed necessary for the use of the term Poetics to designate a half-theoretical and halfpractical discipline which goes by the name of Alamkāra-śāstra Its scope has been sufficiently explained by H. Jacobi, who seems to have been the first to make this term current, in ZDMG lvi, 1902, p. 393, fn 1. It may be pointed out that the commonly used term Rhetoric is inadequate in explaining the standpoint of a study which includes a great deal more than a mere normative treatment of rhetorical categories; while the expression Aesthetic in this connexion is misleading, inasmuch as the theoretical scope of Alamkara literature is not co-extensive with what is understood by that term in modern philosophical studies. Comparative estimates, therefore, with reference to Western Aesthetic or European Critical literature have been generally avoided; for that would not only exceed the limited scope of the present work but might lead to sweeping or misleading generalisations. Those who are interested will find a short critical outline of Sanskrit Poetics in the light of modern Aesthetic in two essays by the present writer published in the Dacca University Studies, vol. i (1936), pp. 1-46, and in the New Indian Antiquary 1x, nos. 1-3 (reprinted in the author's Some Problems of Sanskrit Poetics.

It is needless to say that, as the references will indicate, a careful use has been made of the accumulated but scattered labours of previous workers, but it has been supplemented by the author's own studies. Useless discussion or controversy, however, has been avoided as much as possible, the author confining himself to stating his own view and leaving it to speak for itself. He is fully conscious that no one can claim he has said the last word on the subject.

In the preface to the first edition the author recorded with sincere thanks the manifold help and encouragement he received in writing this work. But it is sad to recollect in this connexion the departed kalyāṇa-mitras, H. Jacobi, L.D. Barnett and F.W.

Thomas, He has only to add that in the persent edition he has profited by the suggestions of Professor Dr. V. Raghavan who took the trouble, in the midst of his manifold preoccupation, of sending useful bibliographical notes on some works and authors.

VOLUME I CHRONOLOGY AND SOURCES

CHAPTER I

BEGINNINGS

(1)

There is an interesting passage in the Kāvya-mīmāmsā in which Rajasekhara, while giving us a somewhat fanciful account of the divine origin of Poetics, mentions at the same time the names of the supposed original exponents of the discipline. It is said that the Spirit of Poetry (kāvya-purusa), born of the Goddess of Learning (sarasvatī), was set by the Self-existent Being to promulgate the study of Poetics in the three worlds; and he related it in eighteen adhikaranas to his seventeen will-born pupils These divine sages, in their turn, are said to have composed separate treatises on the portions respectively learnt by them. Thus Sahasrākşa wrote on kavirahasya, Uktigarbha on auktika. Suvarnanābha on rīti. Pracetayana on anuprasa. Citrangada on yumaka and citra, Sesa on sabda-slesa, Pulastya on vāstava, Aupakāyana on upamā, Pārāśara on atišaya. Utathya on artha-ślesa. Kubera on ubhayālamkāra, Kāmadeva on vainodika, Bharata on rūpaka. Nandikeśvara on rasa, Dhisana on dosa, Upamanyu on guna and Kucamara on aupanisadika. This tendency on the part of a Sanskrit author towards glorifying his science and thereby investing it with an ancient unalterable authority is not unusual, and such legendary accounts are often fabricated where the actual origin is forgotten; but it is curious that we do not meet with them elsewhere in Alamkara literature, although they find expression in Bharata and in Vatsyayana with regard to the origin of the allied disciplines of Dramaturgy and Erotics respectively. The historical value of this passage of Rajasekhara may, indeed, be well doubted; but it is possible that this unique account, apart from its obviously mythical garb, embodies a current tradition, implying the actual existence, at some remote and forgotten period, of early expounders of poetic theory, some of whose names are still familiar, but most of whose works have apparently perished. Thus, Suvarṇanābha and Kucamāra (or Kucumāra) are also cited with reverence by the author of the Kāma-sūtra (i. 1. 13. 17), both of them as authorities on Erotics, but the latter especially as well-versed in the particular subject of aupaniṣadika, which is thus included in Erotics as well as in Poetics.¹ The present-day text of the Nūtya-śūstra, which goes by the name of Bharata, deals in ań encyclopaedic manner with various topics, but Bharata is well known, as described by Rājaśekhara. as an authority on rūpaka. No work of Nandikeśvara on rasa has yet been discovered; but his name is associated with a number of works, mostly late compilations, on erotics, music, histrionic art, grammar and Tantra.²

This traditional account may lead one to make the tempting suggestion of a very early systematic investigation of rhetorical issues but for the serious difficulty that there is hardly any material in the ancient literature itself to enable us to trace the origin of Poetics to a very remote antiquity. The Alamkāra-śāstra is never mentioned among the orthodox disciplines which constitute the so called Vedāngas, nor do we meet with any passage in the Vedic Samhitas, Brahmanas or the earlier Upanisads in which we may find a real basis for a system of Poetics. The word upamā, for instance, is found as early as the Rg-veda (v. 34.9; i. 31, 15), and Sayana explains it in the sense of upamāna (as in Pānini ii. 3. 72) or drstanta; but there is nothing unusual in this use of the general idea of similitude, which need not be interpreted as having a particular speculative significance. It is conceded, on the authority of Yaska and Panini, that the conception of upamā or similitude considerably affected the Vedic language as well as its accent; but beyond this grammatical or philo-

¹ Cf. *JDL* iv p. 95.

² For Nandikesvara see below under ch. ii.

logical interest, there is no indication of a dogma, much less of a theory, of Poetics in Vedic times. Nor should undue emphasis be laid on the use of poetic figures in Vedic literature; for between this unconscious employment of figures of speech and the concious formulation of a definite system, there must necessarily be a long step.¹

(2)

The first evidence of a definite, if somewhat crude, activity in this direction is traceable in the Nighantu and Nirukta From the investigation of the peculiarities of the general form of language, which began early, attention was apparently directed to the analysis of the poetic forms of speech; but the question was still regarded entirely from the linguistic point of view. The term alamkara in the technical sense does not occur in the Nirukta, but Yaska uses the word alamkarismu in the general sense of one in the habit of adorning', which Panini explains in iii. 2, 136 and which is apparently the meaning of the word occurring in the Satapatha Brāhmana (xiii, 8, 4, 7; iii, 5, 1, 36), and in the Chandogya Upanisad (viii. 8, 5). But in the Nighantu iii. 13, a list is given of particles of comparison relating to the Vedic upamā, comprising twelve varieties. which are illustrated in the Nirukta i. 4, iii. 13-18 and ix. 6. Six of these varieties, viz., those indicated by the particles iva, yathā, na, cit, nu and ā, are discussed in connexion with Yaska's treatment of upamarthe nipatas or particles indicative of comparison (i. 4), and partly included in what he designates as karmopamā in iii, 15. Then Yāska mentions bhūtopamā, in which the upamita becomes the upamana in character, and rūpopamā, where the upamita resembles the upamāna in point of form. The fourth variety occurs where the

¹ P. V. Kane (HSP, 3rd Ed. Bombay 1951, pp. 315-19; also IA xli, 1912, p. 120f) argues at some length that the Revedic poets have had some ideas about a theory of Poetics, as well as of Drama and dramatic representation. Also B. N. Bhattacharya in JDL ix, 1923, p. 100f.

particle yathā is used. Then comes siddhopamā, in which the standard of comparison is well established and known to surpass every other object in a particular quality or act, and is characterised by the suffix vat. The last variety is luptopamā or suppressed simile, also called arthopamā (equivalent to the rūpaka of later theorists), which is illustrated in iii. 18 (also ix. 6), where the example is given of the popular application of the terms simha and vyāghra in a laudatory and syan and kāka in a derogatory sense. The term upamāna itself is used by Yāska, but only to denote these particles of comparison (vii. 31). The significance of comparison in general is also referred to in i 19, ii. 6, iii. 5, iv. 11. v. 22 and vii, 13. Incidentally Yaska quotes (iii. 13) the grammarian Gargya's definition of upamā, which is important from our point of view. As explained by Durgācārya, it lays down that upamā occurs when an object which is dissimilar is reckoned, through similarity, with an object having similar attributes.² It also states as a general rule that the standard of comparison should be superior in merit and better known than the object of comparison; but the reverse case is also admitted and illustrated (ni. 14-15) by two examples from the Rg-vedu (x. 40. 2; x. 4. 6). The definition, too wide as it is, recalls Mammata's similar dictum, and undoubtedly establishes a very early, but more or less definite, conception of the poetic upamā.

By the time of Pāṇini this conception of *upamā* seems to have been tacitly recognised and we find him using in this connexion the technical terms *upamāna*, upamita and

l athāta upamā yad atat tat-sadṛsam iti gārgyaḥ, tad āsām karma jyāyasā vā gunenu prakhyātatamena vā kanīyamsam vāprakhyātam vopamimite'thāpi kanīyasā jyāyāmsam.

² evam atat tat-svarūpeņa guņena guņa-sāmānyād upamīyate ity evam gārgyācāryo manyate.

³ ii. 1. 55, iii. 1. 10, 2. 79, 4. 45; v. 4. 97, 137; vi. 1. 204, 2. 2, 72, 80, 127, 145, 169.

⁴ ii. 1. 56.

sāmānya1 as well as general expressions like upamā2 (used in the sense of the rhetorician's upamāna), aupamya, upamārthe4 and sūdrsya. It is noteworthy that in nearly fifty sūtras distributed all over his work, Pānini incidentally discusses, from the grammarian's point of view; the influence of the conception of comparison on the language in the varied dominion of affixes, including case and feminine suffixes, krt, taddhita and samāsānta terminations, in the making of compounds and in accent. The same influence is also traceable in the idea of atidesa, a term which is not used by Pāṇini himself but which is made clear by his commentators. and which may be translated as 'extended application by analogy or similarity'. Kātyāyana, in several vārttikas, follows Pānini in noting the same influence of the idea of similitude, while Santanava in his Phitsūtra discusses it in connexion with accentuation.10 In the Mahābhāşya on ii. 1. 55, Patanjali has defined and illustrated Panini's use of the term upamāna. A māna or measure, he says, is that which is employed in ascertaining a thing unknown; upamāna is approximate to the mana and determines the thing not absolutely (but approximately), e.g. when we say 'a gavaya is like a cow'.11 Strictly speaking, a writer on Poetics will not accept the example adduced by Patanjali as an instance of

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1 ii. 1. 55, 56 ; viii. 1. 74.
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² ii. 3. 72.

³ i. 4. 79; iv. 1. 69; vi. 2. 113.

⁴ viii. 2. 101.

⁵ ii. 1. 6-7; vi. 2. 11.

⁶ i. 4. 79; ii. 3. 72; iii. 1. 10, 2. 79, 4. 45; iv. 1. 69, 4. 9; v. 1. 115-16, 2. 39, 3. 96, 196, 4. 97, 137.

⁷ ii. 1. 7, 31, 55-6; v1. 2. 11.

⁸ v. 1. 18; vi. 1. 204, 2. 2, 11, 72, 80, 113, 127, 145, 169 etc.

⁹ on i. 3. 21; ii. 1. 55, 2. 24, 4. 71; iii. 1. 10 etc

¹⁰ e.g. ii. 16, iv. 18.

¹¹ Mānam hi nāmānirīnāta-jūānārtham upādīyate nirīnātam artham jūāsyāmīti, tat-samīpe yan nātyantāya mimīte tad upamānam, gaur iva gavaya iti, ed. Kielhorn i, p. 397.

poetic upamā, inasmuch as the characteristic charmingness essential in a poetic figure is wanting in such a plain expression; but this grammatical analysis of the general idea of comparison is an early and near approach to the technical conception of Poetics.²

(3)

A special interest attaches to these rules of Panini and the dicta of early grammarians, inasmuch as they form the basis of what may be termed the grammatical sub-division of the figure upamā into direct (śrautī) and indirect (ārthī) simile as well similes based on krt and taddhita suffixes, recognised as early as Udbhaţa's time. Thus, the authority for the śrautī upamā, in which the notion of comparison is conveyed by particles like yathā, iva, vā or by the suffix vat, when vat is equivalent to iva, is supposed to be based on two rules of Pāṇini (v. 1. 115-16), which lay down that the suffix vat is applied to the standard of comparison in the locative or genitive case and takes the place of the case-ending and iva, as well as to a noun which should otherwise be in the instrumental case in the sense of tena tulya (like that), if the similarity consists in an action and not in quality. Thus, we get the forms mathurāvat (=mathurāyām iva) pāţaliputre prākārah, caitravat (=caitrasya iva) maitrasya gāvah, as well as brāhmaņavad (=brāhmaņena tulyam) adhīte, but not caitravat kṛśaḥ. In the same way, we have compounded simile like kumbhāviva stanau, according to the vārttike (ivena samāso vibhaktyalopah) on Pānini ii. 4. 71, which is, therefore, taken as an instance of compounded direct simile (samāsagā śrautī upamā). Similarly, the ending kyac, according to Pāṇini iii. 1. 10, is applied to a noun in the objective case, which is expressive of upamana, in the sense of

¹ go-sadṛśo gavaya iti nopamā, Citr. mīm. p. 6.

² The conception of *upamā* appears to be fully established in Bhartrhari's Vākyapadīya, e.g. i. 63.

'behaviour' (ācāra), and gives us a simile in phrases like pauram janam sutiyasi; while the next rule of Panini lays down that the suffix kyan may be applied to a noun in the nominative case in the sense of 'behaving like', and this forms the basis of a simile in such expressions as tava sadā ramanīvate śrīh. It is needless to cite more examples, for this will be sufficient to indicate that some of the speculations on poetic speech can be traced back to the early grammatical analysis of the same ideas, and they point to the fact that even in the age of Pānini, some of these conceptions appear to have been well established and to have considerably influenced his enquiry. It should be admitted that these tentative sallies of the grammarians are not definite enough to indicate the existence of a system, but even the limited stock of notions, thus indirectly relating to Poetics, throws an interesting light on the genesis of later speculations on poetic speech.

If any deduction is permissible from the name 'Alamkāra' (lit. embellishment)¹ given to the discipline as well as from the contents of the earliest existing works on the subject, it will appear that the science started a posteriori out of the very practical object of analysing poetic embellishments of speech with a view to prescribe definite rules of composition; but it cannot be doubted that it received a great impetus from the highly developed enquiry into the forms of language made by the grammarians. From internal evidence as well as from the testimony, which admits of little doubt, of some of the ancient authorities on Poetics, it is clear that the theoretical background of the discipline was, to some extent, founded on the philosophical speculations on linguistics, so that Grammar, one of the oldest and soundest sciences of India, was its god-father and helped it towards ready

¹ The theory of V. Raghavan (JOR ix, pp. 264-67; and Some Concepts of the Alamkāra-śāstra, Adyar 1942, pp. 258-67) that the original name was Kriyā-kalpa lacks definite proof (see Kane's criticism in HSP, pp. 329-31). The name Sāhitya is of course late (Kane, op. cit. p. 328-29).

Anandavardhana speaks of his own system as acceptance being based on the authority on the grammarians, to whom he pays an elegant tribute as the first and foremost thinkers (prathame hi vidvāmso vaiyākaraņāḥ, vyākaraņa-mūlatvāt sarva-vidyānām, p. 47); while Bhāmaha, one of the earliest known formulators of poetic theory, not only devotes one whole chapter to the question of grammatical correctness a procedure which is followed by Vamana—but also proclaims openly in vi. 63 the triumph of the views of Pāņini. Apart from such details as the linguistic analysis of the idea of comparison referred to above, it can be easily shown that some of the fundamental conceptions of poetic theory, relating to speech in general, are avowedly based on the views of the grammarians to the exclusion of other schools of opinion. Thus, the question regarding the convention (samketa), whereby the expressed meaning of a word (abhidhā) is to be understood, is settled by a reference to the views of the grammarians on this point. The grammarians hold, in opposition to the Naivāyikas, Saugatas and Mīmāmsakas, that the import of a word is either jāti, dravya, kriyā or guņa, as expressed by the dictum catustayi śabdānām pravṛttiḥ, cited from the Mahābhāsya1 by Mukula (p. 4) and Mammata (Sabda-vy. p. 2). Indeed, the whole analysis of the two functions of word and its sense, called abhidhā and laksanā², is borrowed from the grammatico philosophical ideas already elaborated by the grammarians; and even the new aesthetic system of Anandavardhana, in establishing the third function of vyañjanā attempts to seek an authority for its theory on the analogy of the quasi-grammatical theory of sphota, which is associated with the name of the pre-pāņinian grammarian Sphotāvana, and which we find fully developed in the Vākyapadīya.

¹ Mahābhāṣya ed. Kielhorn, p. 19, l. 20. Cf. also Kumāra-saṃbhava ii. 17, where this view is clearly mentioned, although Mallinātha would explain the catuṣṭayī pravṛtti with reference to the four vivartas of Vāc.

² Cf. Mahābhāşya on viii. 1. 12.

(4)

Some of these ideas, again, are more or less recognised in the different philosophical systems, which concern themselves with sabda or speech in general, in connexion with the question of scriptural revelation and interpretation. The theory of sphota, which, however, has only a far-fetched relation to Poetics, has also its significance in some systems of philosophy; and the idea of manifestation, implied in the vyanjanā-vrtti. which consists not in the expression of something new but in the manifestation of something already existing, is not altogether unfamiliar to Indian speculation. A similar train of thought meets us in the Samkhya idea of causation (i.117-18). in which the effect is not produced but is already comprehended in the cause and therefore can only become manifest. We find another analogy in the general idea of the Vedantin's moksa or liberation, which consists of a condition, not to be produced but to be made manifest or realised, by the removal of enveloping obstacles.1 The theory relating to the other two functions of words (abhidhā and laksanā), which play such an important part in poetic speculation, had already engaged the attention, not only of the philosophical grammarians, but also of the philosophers themselves, especially the Naiyāyikas and the Mīmāmsakas. The Naiyāyikas, for instance, hold that by denotation (abhidhā) of a word, we understand not only the individual (vyakti) but also the genus (jāti) and the quality (guṇa) 2; while the Mīmāṃsakas maintain that it signifies primarily jāti. and the vyakti is understood by implication (ākṣepa) through its inseparable con-

¹ It is noteworthy that the Vedānta-sūtra makes a direct use of the term rūpaka in the technical sense (i. 4 1), upon which Appayya Dīkṣita remarks: Bhagavatā bādarāyaṇena 'nānumānikam apy ekeṣām iti cen na, šarīra-rūpaka-vinyasta-gṛhīter darśayati ca' iti šārīraka-sūtre rūpakam aṅgīkṛtam (Citr. mīm. p. 54, ed. Kāvyamālā 1907). Cf. also Vedānta-sūtr ii. 2. 18.

² Nyāya-sūtra ii. 2. 68.

nexion with juti.¹ The Nyāya-sūtra, again, gives an exhaustive list of the relations through which a word may be used in a secondary sense, the idea of secondary sense, variously called gauṇa, bhākta, lākṣaṇika or aupacārika artha, having been tacitly admitted in almost all the systems.² Indeed, the theories of Poetics on these points are considerably mixed up with the doctrines of the Nyāya and Mīmāṃsā schools; and even Bhāmaha's carly work on Poetics devotes a considerable space to the discussion of the logic of poetry and the expressive functions of words.

We shall note in its proper place the influence of the Nyāya, Sāmkhya and Vedānta doctrines on the poetic theory of Rasa; but it may be pointed out here that the conception of upamā (here termed upamāna), by which is implied the general idea of analogy or comparison, plays an important part in the different philosophical systems in the discussion of the nature and criterion of knowledge. The Maitri Upanisad, for instance, treats of three pramanas (v. 10, 14), viz., perception, (drsta or pratyaksa), inference (linga or anumāna) and analogy (upamā or upamāna). and Kapila, no doubt, reject analogy as an independent and authoritative evidence, but the Naiyayikas admit it, the purpose served by it being, in their opinion, the perception of a likeness in an object not perceived before. Vātsyāyana, commenting on i. 1. 3, defines it in terms almost similar to those used in the already quoted passage from the Mahābhāsyas as sāmīpya-mūnam upamānam. to the Naiyayikas, therefore, the object attained by analogy or upamāna consists in the recognition of the connexion between the appellation and the thing designated by it, and thus it forms the very foundation of expression. The idea of

¹ Pūrva-mīmāmsā i. 3. 33ff.

² Vedānta-sūtra ii. 3. 16, iii. 1. 7; Ņyāya-sūtra ii. 2. 64, also i. 2. 11, 14, 15; Sāṃkhya-sūtra v. 67 etc.

³ P. 5, fn 11 above.

atideśa-vākya reappears as the means of analogical cognition. i.e., as a helper of the actual perception of similarity between the well-known and the novel object at the first sight of the latter. The co-operation of the upamana is also maintained to be essential in syllogistic reasoning, where it appears in the form of the syllogistic factor, called upanaya (i. 1. 32) or statement of the minor premise. A relic of this idea of upamāna survives in Poetics in the treatment of Bhoja (Sk iii.50), who distinguishes the figure upamā from the figure upamāna, although this view finds no supporter except Appayya Dikşita, who adopts upamāna as a separate poetic figure.1 needless to dilate more on this point; but the idea of upumāna, together with that of atidesa, is similarly dealt with by the Mimamsakas. They, however, consider that the upamāna refers to an object, already familiar to us, as being similar to another object which is seen for the first time; or in the words of Upavarsa quoted by Sabarasvāmin, the upamāna or analogy, being similarity, produces an idea respecting an object that is not present, just as the sight of a gavaya revives the memory of a cow.2

(5)

Although these speculations have an indirect bearing on Poetics and might have suggested and helped to develop some of its fundamental theories, they cannot be taken as a definite basis of any deductions as to the antiquity of the discipline itself. It is striking indeed that we have no direct or indirect reference to Poetics as a Sastra in early texts, although at the end of the 9th century Rajasekhara speaks of a tradition which makes it the seventh anga. Poetics is omitted in the

¹ Kuvalay. ed. N. S. P. 1913 p. 174. Nägesabhatta takes it as included in the figure upamā itself, and Vāmana appears to deal with one of its varieties (viz. ananubhūta-viṣa) as an instance of what he calls tattvākhyānopamā or descriptive simile (iv. 2. 7).

^{` 2} upamānam api sādīsyam a-sannikīsie'rthe buddhim utpādayati, yathā gavaya-daršanam go-smaraņam, on i. 1. 15.

enumeration of the different branches of study in the wellknown passage in the Chandogya Upanişad (vii. 1. 2. 4, ed. Böhtlingk). Apastamba (ii. 4, 11), speaks of the usual six angas, but Yājñavalkya (i. 3) enumerates in all fourteen Sastras, to which the Visnu-purana adds four more. But in them Poetics is not mentioned at all. In a similar list in the Lalita-vistaru¹, there is a reference to kāvya-karaṇa-granthu and natya, which may be taken to imply Poetics and Dramaturgy respectively; but the designation 'Alamkara' is not met with until we come to Sukra-nīti which includes it. in company with Artha-Śāstra, Kāma-śāstra and Śilpa-śāstra, among thirty-two different Sastras. It has been pointed out by Rhys Davids² that in the old Pali texts, Anguttara (i. 72, iii. 107) and Samyukta (i. 38, ii, 267), there are references to a similar study. These passages are interesting historically as being opposed to the science, but they do not expressly or by implication mention it as Alamkāra-sāstra.³

It seems likely, therefore, that Poetics as a technical discipline must have been of comparatively late origin, and probably began to develop in the first few centuries of the Christian era. With the flourishing of Sanskrit learning and literature in the 4th and 5th centuries under the Gupta emperors, its development probably proceeded apace.

- 1 Ed. Lefmann i, p. 156.
- 2 In a letter to the present writer dated 24. 2. 1921. Cf. Wijesekera in *IHQ*, xvii, pp. 196f.
- 3 In Kautilya's Artha-sastra there is a chapter devoted to the procedure of writing sasanas, where mention is made of artha-krama, paripurnata, madhurya, audarya, and spastatva as excellences which should be attained. These may correspond to the Gunas defined in earlier Alamkara-works, but perhaps they represent the common-sense view of the matter.
- 4 Patañjali refers to a large number of poetical works (ed. Kielhorn i, 283, 340, 426, 444; ii 34, 102, 119, 167, 313, 315; iii 143, 338 etc.), which fact apparently indicates a considerable poetical activity in his age, preluding a systematic investigation of poetic principles; but there is no reference to Alamkāra literature in his time.

Bühler's epigraphical researches have confirmed the indication, first given by Lassen, regarding the development of Sanskrit kāvya-style in this period, and it may be taken as the prelude to a rhetorical activity which bore rich fruit in the 8th and 9th centuries in systematic investigations of poetic principles. His examination of the early inscriptions not only proves the existence of a body of highly elaborate prose and metrical writings in the kāvya-style during the first five centuries A.D., but it also establishes the presumption that most of these prasasti-writers were "acquainted with the rules of Indian poetics".2 Bühler attempts to show that the manner in which these writers conform to the rules of Alamkāra, crystallised in the oldest available manuals like those of Bhamaha and Dandin, would go to indicate "the existence of an Alamkara-sastra or some theory of poetic art".3

From this period of the time, we get more or less definite indications of the existence of doctrines of Poetics in the Kāvya-literature itself. In the two earlier Epics, no doubt, some of the more general terms of Alamkāra (like upamā, kāvya, nāfaka, kathā and ākhyāyikā) are used, but no chronological conclusion is safe from the admittedly composite character of the present-day texts. But in the Buddha-carita of Aśvaghośa, as Cowell notes, we have the use of common

- 1 Die Indischen Inschriften, trans. IA xiii, 1913, pp. 29f.
- 2 Ibid, p. 146.
- 3 lbid.. p 243. This conclusion is, to some extent, supported by a passage in the Girnar inscription itself (2nd century A. D.), which contains a reference to "prose and verse embellished (with poetic figures) and rendered attractive by poetic conventions and expressions which are clear, light, pleasing, varied and charming" (sphuta-laghu-madhura-citra-kānta-sabda-samayodārālaṃkṛta-gadya-padya), El viii, p. 44. The Sphuta, Madhura, Kānta and Citra qualities may correspond to Prasāda, Mādhurya, Kānti and other excellences discussed, e.g. by Daṇḍin. The inscription itself is written in prose having long compounds, and contains alliteration, repetition of sounds and other tricks in the approved style.

poetic figures like upamā, utprekṣā and rūpaka, as well as of elaborate ones like yathā-samkhya and aprastuta-prasamsā in an ingenious way, which presumably betrays an acquaintance with the teachings of Poetics.1 The very first verse uses the word upamā in a somewhat technical sense, and we have also in ili. 51 the use of the term rasūntara to indicate a counter emotion which cancels an already prevailing one. Aśvaghosa uses the terms hāva and bhāva (iv. 12) in the sense they have in dramaturgic Rasa-systems. Cowell, therefore, is justified in remarking that a peculiar interest attaches to such poems "from their importance in establishing Prof. Bühler's views as to the successful cultivation, in Northern India, of artificial poetry and rhetoric-kāvya and alamkāra -in the early centuries of our era." This remark applies with greater force to the works of Kālidāsa, which appear with all the polish and perfection imparted to them by a trained and careful artist. To the later theorists they supply an inexhaustible store-house of quotations for the illustration of different poetic figures, expressions and principles. This conscious employment of varied and elaborate poetic figures and general observance of poetic rules in these early Kavyapoets are not without their significance, and we may reasonably presume from them a general diffusion of the knowledge of Poetics in this age.

The same tendency towards artificial or factitious composition is shown also in the prose romances of Subandhu and Bāṇa, Subandhu prides himself on his skill in the use of sleşa in every letter of his composition,² and his Vāsavadattā justifies this boast as a tour de force of extraordinary verbal jugglery. In the work itself Subandhu speaks of

¹ E. H. Johnston in his revised ed. of the work (Punjab Univ. Publication, Calcutta 1936) appears to agree with this view (Pt. ii, Introd. p. lxxxix f).

² pratyakşara-śleşamaya-prapañca-vinyāsa-vaidagdhya-nidhim prabandham / sarasvati-datta-vara-prasādas cakre subandhuḥ sujanaikabandhuḥ, ed. Srirangam, 1906, p. 357-8.

poetic compositions adorned with poetic figures like ślesa, divided into ucchvāsas,¹ and displaying skill in the employment of vaktra metre. He specifies also two important poetic figures, viz., utprekṣū and ākṣepa.² Equally definite is Bāṇa's references to rhetoric in his mention, in one of the introductory verses of his Kādambarī, cf the poetic figures upamā, jāti (=svabhāvokti), dīpaka and śleṣa as well as of poetic rasa and śayyā. Bāṇa also refers to verbal puzzles, such as akṣara-cyuta, bindumatī, gūḍha-caturthapāda and prahelikā.² and he seems to be aware of the Ālaṃkārika distinction between kathā and ākhyāyikā.⁴ In Harṣa-carīta iii, para 5, Bāṇa refers to Bharata-mārga-bhajana-gītam, and in ii. 4 speaks of actors acting in the Ārabhaţi Vṛtti (discussed by Bharata xx. 54 f),

(6)

From all these indications the inference is not improbable that with the growth of a body of highly finished prose and poetical literature, the science of Poetics or at least the

- 1 Cf. Bhāmaha 1. 25-26, Dandin i. 26-27.
- 2 satkavi-kāvya racanām īvālamkāra-prasādhītām, p. 303; dīrgho-cehvāsa racanākulam su-śleṣa-vaktra-ghatanā-patu sat-kāvya-viracanam iva, pp. 238-39; utprekṣākṣepau kāvyālamkāresu p. 146. The reading of the first of these passages in the Calcutta edition is bauddhasamgatīm ivālamkāra-bhūṣitām, and the commentary of Śīvarāma (18th century) explains it as alamkāro nāma dharmakīrtī-kīto grantha-višeṣah. No work of Dharmakīrtī's called Bauddhasamgatīyalamkāra has yet been found. Undue reliance need not be placed on an unauthenticated statement of a very late commentator; and Lévi is probably correct in denying that Subandhu makes any allusion to Dharmakīrtī's literary activity (Bulletīn de l' É'cole d'Extrême Orient 1903, p. 18).
 - 3 ed. Peterson, p. 7. Subandhu (p. 146) refers to Srnkhala-bandha.
- 4 Ibid, p. 7 and Harsa-c. p. 7. —On the meaning of the word Alamkara see J. Gonda in Volume of Eastern and Ind. Studies presented to F. W. Thomas (Bombay 1939) pp. 97-114; but this has hardly any direct connexion with the meaning it bears in Sanskrit Alamkara literature. A similar attempt is made by A. B. Keith in Commemorative Essays presented to K. B. Pathak (Poona BORS, 1934), pp. 311-14.

investigation of rhetorical rules made considerable progress by the end of the sixth century A. D. The earliest known writers on Poetics, who lived somewhat later, themselves refer to still earlier authorities. Thus, Bhāmaha speaks of Medhāvin and others, whom he cites and whose work he avowedly utilises. Similarly Dandin refers to earlier writings, and one of his commentators mentions in this connexion two theorists before Dandin, viz. Kāśyapa and Vararuci, who are otherwise unknown to us as writers on Alamkara. Apart from this fact of their own citation of earlier views, it cannot also be maintained with any cogency that the relatively developed style and treatment of even these early writers on Poetics could have been evolved by themselves in the absence of earlier tentative works, the existence of which may be presumed, for instance, by the employment by these writers of certain technical words and formulas (e.g. vakrokti, rīti, guna etc) without a previous explanation.

As a cognate branch of study, however, which probably supplied Poetics with a model and the poetic theory with the important content of Rasa, Dramaturgy (Nātya-śāstra) appears to have established itself a little earlier. Compartively early texts, both brahmanical and buddhistic, speak of some kind of dramatic representation; and we have a very early reference in Pānini to Kršāśva and Šilālin as authors of nata-sūtras (iv. 3, 110-11). The early existence of treatises on the dramatic art is also evidenced by the fact that all the early authors on Poetics, Bhāmaha, Dandin and Vāmana, omit a discussion of this subject and refer their readers for information to such specialised works. The older specimens of these are perhaps lost; but Bharata's Nātya-śastra, which is cited as the oldest known and most authoritative, cannot possibly be put, even in its present version, at a date lower

¹ It is interesting to note that both Amara and Saévata in their lexicons do not explain the technical terms of Alamkara, although they have distinct references to dramaturgic technicalities and to Rasa.

than the 6th century A. D. Bharata himself, however, devotes a whole chapter to the treatment of poetical gunas and alamkāras as decorative devices of dramatic speech. It seems, therefore, that the study of Alamkara was older than Bharata; and the tradition of opinion, followed by Bhāmaha and Dandin, may have been post-Bharata in date, but was probably pre-Bharata in substance. Indeed, the different schools of opinion, represented by the alamkāra- rīti- and dhvani-theories, probably flourished some centuries before their views became crytallised in the present works of Bhāmaha, Dandin and the Dhvanikāra respectively, none of whom, as we shall see, can be taken as the absolute founder of the system he represents. This process of crystallisation must have covered a tentative stage whose productions, if they had been extant today, would have shown Bhamaha. Dandin and the Dhvanikāra in the making. We cannot, therefore, start with the works of these writers as the absolute beginnings of the science, although with them we enter upon the historic and most creative stage of its existence. Taking this fact into consideration, we may presume without dogmatising that the Alamkara-śastra started as a separate technical discipline from about the commencement of the Christian era and probably flourished in a relatively developed form in the 5th and 6th centuries A.D. The course of this development is unfortunately hidden from us, until it emerges in a more or less self-conscious form in some chapters of Bharata and in the Kāvyālamkāra of Bhāmaha.

CHAPTER II

BHARATA

(1)

Although Indian tradition glorifies Bharata, the reputed author of the Nātya-śāstra, with the title of muni and places him in a mythic age, the widest possible divergence of opinion exists among scholars as to his actual date; and he has been variously assigned to periods ranging from the 2nd century B.C. to the 2nd century A.D.¹ That he is the oldest writer on dramaturgy, music and kindred subjects, whose work has survived, is generally admitted; but at the same time the question arises as to how far the extant version of his work represents his original text. Abhinavagupta in the second introductory verse of his commentary on Bharata informs us that Bharata's text, as known to him, consisted of thirty-six chapters (sattrimśukam bharata-sūtram idam); and he is aware of two recensions (dvividhah pātho dršyate on ch. xv) of some chapters. A comparison of the different printed editions mentioned in our Bibliography below, as well as available MSS. would go to show that they do not agree about the number and sequence of chapters, nor about the number of verses in each chapter. The text is, thus, very uncertain and unsatisfactory.²

¹ Regnaud in Annales du Mus. Guimet is p 66, also introd. to Grosset's ed.; Pischel in GgA, 1885, pp. 763f; P R. Bhandarkar in IA xli, pp. 157f; H. P. Sastri in JASB, v. p. 352f, and Cat. Sansk. MSS ASB, vi 1931, p. clxxviii, S. Lévi in IA xxxiii, p. 63; Sten Konow in Ind. Drama p. 2; P. V. Kane in IA, xlvi (1917), pp. 171 83, and HSP pp. 39f; Manomohan Ghosh in JDL xxv, 1934, pp. 59.

² For instance, Deccan College MS no. 68 (or 69) of 1873-74 contains 38 chapters.—For some of these discrepancies see P. V. Kane, HSP, pp. 10-14. It should be noted that neither the printed text nor any MS contains the full text of Abhinava's commentary. Abhinavagupta in many places refers to the views of others with kecit or anye, and discusses various readings (pp. 50, 93, 96, 226, 241, 269, 340 etc).

It is clear from these indications that it had been subjected to considerable rehandlings in later times before it assumed its present shape, and this fact has an important bearing on the date of the supposed author.

There are several passages in the present-day text which probably throw some light on this process of gradual interpolation and recasting. The curious colophon at the end in the Kāvyamālā edition, which appears to have puzzled its editor, designates the latter portion of the work as Nandi-Rice mentions² a work called Nandi-bharata bharata.1 on music; while a chapter, apparently from a work on dramatic gesture, is referred to as nandibharatokta samkarahastādhyāya in a manuscript of a treatise on music and Abhinaya, noticed in Madras Catalogue xii, no. 13009. These works, probably late compilations, are named after Nandi or Nandikesvara, whom tradition acknowledges as an ancient authority on music, erotics and histrionic art. A Nandin is quoted by Vatsyayana (i.1. 8). Aufrecht is inclined to identify him with Nandikesvara cited as a writer on Erotics in the Pañca-sāyaka i. 13 and Rati-rahasya i. 5.3 Nānyadeva mentions him as Nandin. Again, a work on histrionic art, attributed to Nandikeśvara, is known as Abhinaya-darpana : as this work refers to Bharata and his views several times (e.g. st. 12. 128, 149, 159, 162) it must be a later compilation. Rajasekhara. as we have seen above, mentions Nandikesvara as a writer on Rasa. But Nandikeśvara is better known as an authority on music and is cited as one of his sources by Sarngadeva (13th century) in his Samgīta-ratnākara (i. 1. 17) and by his commentator Kallinatha (p.47). Besides the references given

¹ samāptaš cāyam [granthaḥ] nandibharata-saṃgīta-pustak am.

² Mysore and Coorg Catalogue, p. 292.

³ Pañca-sāyaka, ed. Sadananda Sastri Ghiladia, Lahore, 1921; Ratirahasya, ed. ibid Lahore, no date. See Schmidt, Ind. Erotik, 1911, pp. 46, 59.

⁴ Ed. Manomohan Ghosh, Calcutta 1934 (about 330 verses); tra. A. Coomaraswamy and G. K. Duggirala, Cambridge Mass. 1917.

above, works on music attributed to Nandikeśvara are: Nandikeśwara-mate Tālādhyāya (Weber 1729), and Bharatānava¹ supposed to be a condensed version of Nandikeśvara's work by Sumati, dealing with dramatic gestures and Tala. A Nātyārņava of Nandikeśvara is cited in Allarāja's Rasaratna-pradīpikā. Abhinavagupta (comm. on Bharata, ed. GOS, ch.xxix) says that he had not himself seen (sāksān na drstam) Nandikeśvara's work, but relying on Kirtidhara (yat tu kirtidharena darśitam.....tat-pratyayāt) he would briefly refer to Nandikeśvara-mata. But he knows (p. 171) a work called Nandi-mata from which he quotes a verse on the Angahāra called recita or recaka Elewhere he tells us that by Nandimata is understood the views of Tandu; for the names, Nandi and Tandu are, in his opinion, identical. The designation, therefore, of the latter part of Bharata's text. a part of which deals, among other things, with music probably implies that it was compiled or recast at some later period in accordance with the views of Nandikeśvara.

Similarly, we hear of a work called Matanga-bharata² (of uncertain date) by Laksmana Bhāskara, which apparently sets forth the views of Matanga. This is another old authority cited by Abhinavagupta (as Matanga-muni) who quotes (ch, xxx) two of his Anuştubh verses; by Śarngadeva and his conementator (on i. 3. 24-25; i. 4. 9; i. 8. 19 etc.); by Śingabhūpāla (i. 51); and by Arunācalanātha on Raghu (p. 100) with tathā ca mātange. A work called Bṛhad-deśī ascribed to Matanga has been published².

- 1 In Catalogue of MSS, BOR1, xii, pp. 460-63; Madras Cat. xxii, 13006-08.
- 2 The term bharata appears in course of time to mean the dramatic or histrionic art generally, as it also came to mean the actor.—Rāghavabhatta on Sakuntalā expressly refers to Adi-bharata by whom he might have meant our author, in contradistinction to these later Bharatas. On this question see S. K. De, The Problem of Bharata and Adi-Bharata in Our Heritage i, pp. 193 207 (reprinted in Some Problems of Skt. Poetics.
 - 3 In Trivandrum Skt. Ser. 1928.

The last chapter of the Natya-śastra, to which the colophon mentioned above is appended, contains a prediction that the rest of the topic will be treated in detail by Kohala¹ (who apparently belonged to the same school), plainly shewing that the rewriting of the portion in question was done some time after Kohala, as well as Nandikeśvara, had spoken on the subject. Nandikesvara's date is unknown; but Kohala, side by side with Bharata, is recognised as an ancient authority as early as the end of the 8th century A.D. in Dāmodara-gupta's Kuţţanī-mata (śl. 81). interesting to note in this connexion that Abhinavagupta, commenting on Bharata vi. 10, says that although Natya is usually said to consist of five angas, the enumeration of eleven angas in the text is in accordance with the view of Kohala and others,3 to whose opinions the commentator makes many other incidental references mostly on the topics of Natya and Geya.4 Kohala is cited also by Manikyacandra (p. 65) on Mammata, by Sarngadeva (i. 1. 15), by Sāradātanaya who frequently quotes his views (pp. 204, 210, 236, 245, 251), by the authors of the Natya-darpane pp. 25, 38, 132), while Śingabhūpāla (i, 51) acknowledges him as an authority on drama and allied arts. Hemacandra, with reference to the classification of the drama, says (p. 329; also p. 325): prapañcas tu bharata-kohalādi-śāstrebhyo'vagantavyah. Kohala is credited by most writers on Dramaturgy with the introduction of Uparūpaka. Mallinātha on Kumāra vii. 91 quotes Kohala on the subject of Tāla. A work on music called Tāla-lakṣaṇa, probably a late compila-

¹ Seşam prastāra-tantreņa kohalaļi kathayiyyati, xxxvii. 18.

² See xxxvii. 24.

³ Abhinaya-trayam gītātodye ceti pañcāngam nātyam aneng tu ślokena kohalādi matenaikādaśāngatvan ucyate (on vi. 10).

⁴ For references see P. V. Kane, HSP, p. 24, 54-55. See also his Fragments of Kohala in Proc. A-I O.C. (Patna), 1930, pp. 577-80.—Abhinavagupta, however, holds that the entire text of the Natya-sastra as known to him was composed by Bharata himself.

tion, is attributed to him, and a Kohaliya Abhinaya-śāstra, purporting to embody his views, is also known. A work. called Kohala-rahasya' in at least thirteen chapters, dealing with musical modes, is ascribed to the sage Kohala (described as son of Bharata) who reveals the subject on being requested by Matanga. The description that he was son of Bharata is perhaps due to the indication in Natya-śastra i. 26 (ed. Chowkhamba 1929, ed. GOS, Baroda 1956; but not included in the NSP ed. 1894) that Kohala, along with Sandilya. Dhūrtila and others, are spoken of as sons of Bharata. Since Abhinavagupta says (Abh. bh. p. 25) that Kohala describes the verse jitam udupatinā from Ratnāvalī (i. 5) as an example of Nandi in accordance with the rules of Bharata, P. V. Kane is of opinion that Kohala was later than Ratnāvalī, i.e. than 650 A.D. But this conclusion cannot be very well reconciled with the fact that Bharata and Kohala are already recognised as ancient authorities in the 8th century A.D. From Abhinavagupta's references and citations Kohala's lost work appears to have been mostly in verse.

A work on music, entitled Dattila-kohalīya, is mentioned by Burnell (p. 696), apparently a compendium of the opinions of Kohala and Dattila. The latter, whose name occurs variously as Dantila and Dhūrtila, is mentioned by Dāmodara-gupta (śl. 123) and is cited as an old authority by Abhinava-gupta (as Dattilācārya, chiefly on music) who quotes (on Bharata xxviii, also p. 205) a verse of his in Anuştubh; by Sārngadeva (i. 1. 16) and his commentator Kallinātha (p. 49);

^{1 10}C 3025, 3089; Madras Cat. with a Telugu comm. 12992.

² Madras Cat. 12989, with a Telugu comm.

³ Medras Trm. I, C, 787 (the 13th chapter only).

⁴ The editions (GOS) of M. R. Kavi, and Chowkhamba Skt. Ser. include this verse (i. 26) but they note that it does not occur in the MSS consulted. It is, however, commented upon by Abhinavagupta (p. 18)—Kohala's views are referred to by him p. 25, 103, 1173, 182, 266 etc.

by Singabhūpāla (i. 51), as well as in various works on music. A work called *Dattila* on music is also published.¹

In the same way śandilya is mentioned as Natya-śastrakāra by Singabhūpāla (i. 51). Kāsyapa or Kasyapa as a muni who preceded Bharata and his opinion on Ragas are cited by Abhinavagupta (on xxix, p. 394), as well as by Nānyadeva². Śātakarni is cited as a writer on dramaturgy by Sāgaranandin (on Sūtradhāra, 1, 1101). Visākhila is also cited as an authority on Kalā-śāstra by Vāmana (i. 3. 7), by Abhinavagupta (on xxviii, xxix. 31-33) and by Nanyadeva as an authority on music. Parāśara or Pārāśara, mentioned by Rājašekhara, is also cited as a Bharata-putra in Nātya-śāstra (i. 32); his views on Nāndī and Toṭaka are quoted by Sāgaranandin (ll. 1091, 2770 3202-3). Similarly, another Bharata-putra is Nakhakutta, who is also cited by Sagaranandin (Il. 2668, 2994). Even the mythical Narada is regarded as propounder of Gandarva-veda; and the Bhava-prakasana says that Nārada taught Bharata the subject of evolution of Rasa. having learnt it from Brahmā himself.

From these indications it is likely that between Bharata's original text and its existing version, there came "Kohala and others" whose views found their way into the compendium, which goes by the name of Bharata and which indiscriminating posterity took as genuine and unquestionable. The text-problem of the Nāṭya-śāstra, therefore, cannot be solved until the works of Kohala and other early writers, some of which appear to have been available to Abhinavagupta, are recovered.

The process of incorporation must have occurred very early and was apparently complete by the end of the 8th century, when the work assumed more or less its present shape. Udbhata, about this time, actually appropriated

¹ In Trivandrum Skt. Series, 1930.

² On Kāsyapa see below under Dandin. Abhinavagupta's reference to Kāsyapācārya at p. 239 shows that his work was, at least partly, in verse.

(iv. 4) the first-half of the verse vi. 15 of the Nāṭya-śāstra, and makes only enough verbal change in its second half to admit Śānta as the ninth Rasa in the category of eight recognised by Bharata. Abhinavagupta, who commented on the existing text at the end of the 10th century, himself mentions several other previous commentators, of whom Lollata and Śankuka in all probability belonged to the 8th and 9th centuries. These indications will make it clear at any rate that the text existed in its present form in the 8th century A.D., if not earlier.

(2)

We have, on the other hand, the tradition as well 'as the statement of Bhavabhūti, who refers to the mythical Bharata as the tauryatrika-sūtra-kāra², that Bharata's work existed originally in the sūtra-form; and this is also made likely by Pāṇini's early reference to such naṭa-sūtras in his own time. Reminiscences of the sūtra-style may indeed be presumed in the Nāṭya-śāstra vi and vii, which deal with rasa and bhāva;

- 1 It should be noted that Abhinavagupta immediately after the passage cited (see p. 21, fn 3 above) goes on to say: anena tu ślokena kohalūdi-matenaikūdašāngatvam ucyate, na tu bharate, tatsamgrhītasyāpi punar atroddesūt, nirdese caitat krama-vyatyūsanāa ity udbhaţaḥ neti bhatta lollatahvayam tvatra tattvam agre vitanisyuma ity astum tāvat (on Bh. vi. 10). This difference of opinion between Udbhata and Lollata on a question of textual interpretation supports the conclusion that Udbhata was probably familiar with the text of Bharata as Abhinava knew it and as it has come down to us. The tradition is recorded by Sarngadeva (i. l. 19) that Udbhata was one of the early commentators on Bharata. Abhinava himself refers to Lollata, Sankuka and Bhatta Nāyaka as principal commentators whose views on Rasa he thought worth refuting in detail. Sarngadeva omits from his list Bhatta Nāyaka but adds Udbhata. as well as Kirtidhara who is earlier than Abhinava having been cited by him (see above p. 20). For other reputed commentators on Bharata see below.
- 2 Uttara-carita, ad iv. 22 (ed N. S. P. 1906., p. 120). Abhinava-gupta in his commentary refers to Bharata's work as a Sütra-work.

for in ch. vi we find a dictum' on the genesis of Rasa, put in concise form of a sūtra, to the elucidation of which, after the manner of a bhāsya or vṛtti, the rest of the chapter (written in prose with verse-quotations) is apparently devoted. It should also be noticed that a preliminary explanation is added at commencement of the chapter to reconcile this curious portion of the text with the rest of the work. Bharata, we are told, being requested by the sages, explains the characteristics of a samgraha, kārikā, and nirukta, and incidentally gives an illustration of a sūira-grantha by putting a part of the text in that form. This discussion of the pature of a samgraha, kārikā, nirukta and sūtra would not have been relevant to the subject in hand but for this somewhat flimsy explanation, vhich, however, affords a device, far-fetched as it is, to introduce into the kārikā-text some vestiges of the older sūtra-form. It is not maintained that a sūtra-text is necessarily older than a text in the karika-form: for in our sutra-text itself there are quotations in the vrtti of anubaddha or anuvamsya ślokas2, betokening the existence of earlier teachings on the subject, and disproving at the same time the orthodox belief that Bharata was the earliest teacher of the Natya-veda. But if the tradition that Bharata's original work was composed in the sūtra-form be accepted, then this portion of the existing version may be presumed to have been a survival of the original form. Similar fragments of the sūtra-bhāşya style

¹ tatra vibhāvānubhāva-vyabhicāri-samyogād rasa-niṣpattiḥ, ed. Grosset p. 87, 1. 8; ed. Kāvyamālā p. 62, 1. 6. This dictum is cited as a Sūtra by all later writers, including Abhinavagupta and presumably his predecessors Lollata and others. For other instances of the Sūtra-bhāṣya style in the work see P. V. Kane, HSP, pp. 15-16.—The references to the text of the Nūṭya-sāstra here are generally to the Kāvyamālā ed.

² The anubaddha verses, apparently of earlier writers, are those related to the subject in hand. By anuvaṃsya verses (verses of this kind occur also in the Mahābhārata) are meant, according to Abhinavagupta, those handed down traditionally from teacher to pupil (anuvaṃsa-bhavaṃ siṣyācārya-paraṃparāsu vartamārum) vi, p. 25-26.

are seen in ch. xxviii-xxxi in such passages as beginning with ātodya-vidhim idānīm vakşyāmaḥ (xxviii. 1); also in xxxiii. 212 vādya-vidhānam vakşyāmi; in xxiv. 93 atra sūtra-dhāra-guṇān vakşyāmaḥ etc.

If we get the lower limit to the date of Bharata's work at 8th century A.D., the other limit is very difficult to settle, when we consider that there were apparently two versions, either independent or one based on the other. But it is not clear what weight should be placed on the testimony of Bhavabhūti; for if in the first quarter of the 8th century Bharata was known to him as a sūtra-kāra, it is not intelligible how at the end of the same century Udbhata makes use of Bharata's kārika, and Lollata and others, immediately following, apparently comment on the same text. The short space of less than half a century is not enough to obliterate all signs of the older version and replace it entirely with a new kārikā-text which, to all intents and purposes, is taken as the only authoritative version in later times, and in which, strangely enough, we find still lingering traces of the earlier sūtra-text. The only possible explanation of Bhavabhūti's reference is that the historical Bharata, who was the sūtra-kāra on the three arts of dancing, singing and instrumental music, had already in Bhavabhūti's time become identified with the mythical Bharata; for the passage in the Uttara-carita gives an obviously mythical account, through the mouth of Lava, that bhagavān Vālmīki, having composed his story of Rāma, gave it to bhagavān Bharata (the sūtra-kāra on the three arts and apparently the nātyācārya of the gods) who revised it and got it acted through celestial nymphs.

But this does not exhaust all our textual difficulties. Independent prose-passages also survive, in the midst of kārikās, in chs. xvii, xxviii, xxix, xxxi and xxxiv which, forming an integral part of the text, cannot be taken as mere vṛṭṭi, but which resemble, in some respects, the prose Smṛṭi-fragments or more closely, the prose-fragments in the apocryphal Bhela-saṃhitā. Again, the anubaddha or anuvaṃṣya

slokas, referred to above, correspond to the parikara- or samgraha-ślokas in later writings, and certainly indicate the probability of earlier speculations on the subject. These verses are generally taken from two distinct sources; for some of them are in āryā, while others are in anuştubh metre. On the Āryā-verses Abhinava remarks (on vi. 85, p. 328); tā etā hy āryā eka-praghattakatayā pūrvācāryar lakṣaṇatvena pathitāḥ, muninā tu sukha-saṃgrahāya yathā-sthānaṃ viniveśitāḥ. In his opinion former teachers composed these Āryās and Bharata inserted them in proper places.

From the facts adduced above, we are confronted with the problem of the inter-relation of these apparent survivals in our text, which contains vestiges of (1) independent prosefragments (2) anuvamsya slokas in āryā and anuştubh metres and (3) passages in sūtra-bhāṣya style, as well as (4) the present systematic kārikās. Space is too limited to dilate upon the question here, but an examination of these passages will reveal that these different styles do not possibly belong to the same period, but they probably indicate several stages in the growth of particular forms of composition of dramaturgic works in general, each stage betraying its own partiality towards a particular form. Taking the present kārikā-text as the starting point, we find in it traces of earlier passages in sūtra-bhāşya style, of which it is presumably a recast. In the sūtra-bhāşya, again, there are fragments of metrical passages which indicate, in their turn, another and still earlier kārikā-stage; while the independent prose-fragments perhaps represent the earliest form taken by such technical treatises. We can, therefore, distinguish in their order of development (1) a stage of prosetreatises (2) a tentative period of kārikā-writing (3) the sūtrabhasya stage and (4) the final period of compilation compendiums, which reverts again to the kārikā-form. This

¹ This conclusion does not apply to the more or less imitative periods after the 10th century in which we find the $k\bar{a}rik\bar{a}$ - and the $s\bar{u}tra$ -style, existing almost side by side.

conclusion perhaps finds some support in the repetition, more or less, of a similar phenomenon in the sphere of the Dharma-śāstra. Artha-śāstra. Vaidya-śāstra and probably Kāma-śāstra. The loss of earlier treatises makes it difficult to degmatise; but if this conclusion is correct generally, then our text may be supposed to contain remnants of all these styles and forms. It is not argued here that Bharata's work itself passed through all these stages or forms, from a rudimentary prose-version into a systematic metrical manual; but our text contains enough to betray the existence of previous speculations in prose and in verse, as well as indicate the fact that it might have itself been once written in the sūtra-bhāṣya form, which was recast, with considerable additions from other sources, into a convenient metrical compendium.

(3)

Taking the substance of the work, apart from the vexing question of different versions, the portion of the Nāṭya-śāstra, which deals principally with music, has been conjectured on internal evidence to have been compiled about the 4th century A.D.; and it appears likely that the other portions were also put into their present shape about the same time. Pischel's argument, however, on the date of the work, derived from the reference to Śakas, Yavanas, Pahlavas and Bāhlikas (e.g. xxxii. 103, Ch. ed.) in a text of such composite character is of doubtful value in determining the question finally; but

¹ Kane believes it possible (HSP, p. 16) that the original nucleus of the Nāṭya-śāstra was in mixed prose and verse. He is also of opinion that the first five chapters were comparatively late additions. Abhinavagupta knows Bharata's text as consisting of 36 chapters, although he comments on the 37th ch. of what M. R. Kavi speaks of as the Northern recension (according to Kavi the Southern is the earlier text and consists of 36 chapters).

² IA xii p. 158 f.

it perhaps makes it probable that the upper limit of its date cannot be put too early.

We are in a position, however, to infer that the substance of Bharata's work is probably much older than that of Bhāmaha.1 who may be assigned to the last quarter of the 7th century. Bhāmaha, in his treatment of poetic figures (kāvyālamkāras), groups them in a curious but suggestive way, which probably indicates the different periods in the growth and multiplication of such figures.2 At the outset, he names and defines only five poetic figures (ii. 4) recognised, as he says, by other writers, viz, anuprāsa, yamaka, rūpaka, dīpaka and upamā. This represents the first stage; but in course of time, six other figures appear to have been added, and Bhāmaha mentions and deals with them next in ii. 66. Then he goes on to enumerate, two (or three, including svabhāvokti) more figures admitted by writers like Medhāvin (ii. 88), who also appears to have dealt with upamā etc. (ii. 40). Finally. Bhāmaha defines and illustrates a further long list of twenty-three more figures in a separate chapter (iii, 1-4). The differentiation and multiplication of poetic figures with the progress of speculation is a familiar fact in Alamkāra literature; and the way in which Bhāmaha successively enumerates and groups these figures probably shows that to the original five mentioned by him at the outset, others were added in course of time as the study itself advanced. Now Bharata, in his treatment of Alamkaras names (xv1, 41) only four such figures known to him, viz., yamaka, rūpaka, dīpaka and upamā, These four in reality correspond to the five mentioned by Bhamaha; for anuprasa may be taken as falling in the same class as yamaka, the one being varnābhyāsa and the other padābhyāsa. At the same time

¹ Besides showing himself conversant with some theory of Rasa (ii. 281, 283 f), Dandin mentions the dramaturgic technical terms sandhi, anga, vitti and laksana and refers to agamantara for their discussion (ii. 366).

² Cf Jacobi in Sb. der Preuss, Akad. xxiv, 1922. pp. 220 f.

may indicate further refinement in these poetic figures. It is clear, therefore, that Bharata's work belonged to a period when the number of figures had not yet multiplied; and one, if not more, stages must have intervened between it and Bhāmaha's Kāvyālaṃkāra in which the number had already swelled into nearly forty in all. To this intermediate stage belonged Medhāvin and others, whom Bhāmaha cites, and the loss of whose work makes it difficult for us to trace the development thus indicated by Bhāmaha.

There are also indications that Bharata's teachings are probably older than Kālidāsa, who generally adheres to Bharata's dramaturgic prescriptions. Kālidāsa refers, in Vikramorvasīya ii. 18, to Bharata as the mythical nāţyāzārya. In Raghu xix. 36, again, Kālidāsa speaks of aṅga-sattva-vacanāśraya nṛtya which, as Mallinātha rightly points out, agrees with Bharata's dictum': sāmānyābhinayo nāma jñeyo

- 1 By the end of the 6th and beginning of the 7th century, Bhatti illustrates as many as 38 different species of poetic figures, indicating that the process of refinement had proceeded very far indeed even in his time.
- 2 The discovery of the dramas, ascribed to Bhūsa, does not invalidate this argument, for it is possible that they follow a tradition or a system of opinion of which all traces are now lost; and the date of Bhūsa itself is uncertain.
- This lexicon, which is said to have been translated into Chinese about 561-66 A. D. (see Nandargikar's introd. to Meghadūta, 1894, p. 73), admits after Bharata the eight Rasas, and explains some of the dramaturgic technicalities, giving three synonyms of the actor (sāilālin, kršāvin and bharata) from the names of the three well-known teachers of dramaturgy. Pāṇini refers to the formation of the first two terms, but not that of the third; but this silence of the grammarian does not prove anything. The Jaina Anuogadārasutta (ed. N. S. P. 1915, fol. 134-145, also quoted in Weber ii 2, pp. 701-02) which, Winternitz thinks, was probably put together by the middle of the 5th century, mentions nine Rasas; and the enu-

vāg-aṅga-sattvajaḥ; while in Kumāra vii. 91 mention is made of saṃdhis, as well as of lalitāṅgahāra mentioned in Nātya-śāstra xx. 17 (ed. Chowkhamba xxii. 17).

The lower limit of the date of Bharata's work, therefore, can be provisionally shifted back to the fourth or fifth century A.D., while it is almost certain that it existed in its present shape in the 8th century A.D.1 The upper limit cannot be put too early, because of the mention of Sakas, Yavanas, Pahlavas and other tribes, and probably does not go beyond the commencement of the Christian era; but we have already pointed out (p. 28 above) that their mention in a composite text is hardly of a conclusive value. It is difficult to settle the relative age of the sūtra- and the kārikā-texts; but if the tendency towards sūtra-bhāsya style may be presumed to have been generally prevalent in the last few centuries BC., then the presumed sūtra-text of Bharata belongs apparently to this period². It was certainly much earlier than the present kārikā-text, in which Bharata is already a mythical sage as an expounder of the nātya-veda.

COMMENTATORS ON BHARATA

No commentatory on Bharata's Nātya-śastra exists today except that of Abhinavagupta. But the names of some reputed

meration is interesting from the inclusion of prasanta (not mentioned by Bharata), apparently from religious motives.

- 1 With this view Kane (HSP, p 19, 22) generally agrees.
- 2 It will be shewn later that the tradition that Bharata was the author of a Kāvya-laksana. which forms in substance of the kārikā-verses of Mammaţa's Kav. prak.. is entirely erroneous, as is also the statement made use of by Lévi that these kārikās are abridged from the Agni-purāṇa. Somadeva in his Yaśastilaka (959-60 A. D.) refers, indeed, to a bharata-praṇīta kāvyādhyāya (Peterson ii. p. 45) which, considering Somadeva's date, could not have alluded to this tradition of Bharata's authorship of Mammaţa's kārikās, but possibly, from the term of reference, to ch. xvi of the Nāṭya-śāstra, which deals with kāvya-laksaṇas, kāvyālamkāras kāvya-guṇas and kāvya-doṣas as embellishments of dramatic speech.

as well as actual commentators on Bharata are known from Abhinavagupta, Sārngadeva and other writers. They are:

- 1. Mātṛguptācārya
- 2. Udbhata
- 3. Lollata
- 4. Śańkuka
- 5. Bhatta Nāyaka
- 6. Harşa
- 7. Kırtidhara
- 8. Abhinavagupta
- 9. Nănyadeva.

We have also the views of several other writers cited by Abhinavagupta.³ They are: Bhaṭṭa Yantra (on Nāṭya and Nṛṭta p. 208), Priyātithi (on Lāsyāṅga), Bhaṭṭa Vṛddhi (on Tāla), Bhaṭṭa Sumanas (on Tāla), Bhaṭṭa Saṃkara (Vṛṭta-prakaraṇa) and Ghaṇṭaka (on Nāṭikā-bheda). Rāhula or Rāhala (pp. 115, 172, 197 etc), also mentioned by Śārṅgadeva (i.1.17), is quoted several times. As in one of his verses Bharata is named (bharatenoditam, Abh.bh. i, p. 72) he must have been, as most of the writers mentioned above, later than Bharata. From his name, as well as from Hemacandra (p. 316), who mentions him as Śākyācārya, he appears to have been a Buddhist teacher, whose view Hemacandra pointedly ignores. It cannot be determined if all these writers composed commentaries on the whole or a part of Bharata's work: but from the references it seems

¹ See P. V. Kane, Gleanings from Abhinava-bhāratī in K. B. Pathak Comm. Vol. Poona 1934, pp. 385-400, V. Raghavan, Writers quoted in Abhinava-bhāratī in JOR, vi, 1932, pp. 149 f, 199 f.

² Sarngadeva mentions: vyākhyātāro bhāratīye lollaţodbhaţaśaņkulāhjbhatţābhīnavaguptas ca śrīmat-kīrtidharo'paraḥ. He mentions Rāhula and Mātrgupta elsewhere as two of his authorities,
apparently on music.

³ The references to Abhinava-bhāratī by vols, and pages are to M. Ramkrishna Kavi's ed., Baroda 1926. Where the vol. is not indicated by a number but only by page, vol. i is meant.

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that most of them wrote generally on music. and some pecially on topics of dramaturgy as well.

Bhatta Tauta, Abhinava's Guru, and Utpaladeva, his Parama-guru, are frequently quoted in his commentary. Tauta is known as having written a work called Kāyyakautuka, which is now lost; on this work Abhinava appears to have written a Vivarana (Locana p. 178). At the beginning of his commentary Abhinavagupta pays an elegant tribute to Tauta as having expounded to him the Natya-śastra, and references to Tauta's view on various topics confirm this. But it need not mean that Tauta actually composed a commentary on Bharata. Utpaladeva, author of Iśvara-pratyabhijñā and other works, is well known in the history of Kashmir Saivaism. He is quoted chiefly in the chapters on music. It is not clear if he wrote a commentary on these chapters or an independent work on music. Similar remarks apply to Sakalīgarbha who is cited once along with Udbhata (see below). Mention is also made of Tandu' in Nātya-śāstra (iv. 17-18) as one who instructed Bharata in the representation of Angaharas together with various karanas (postures) and recakas (gestures). An unknown Tikākāra or Titākrt is frequently cited by Abhinava throughout the text.

Mätrguptäcarya

Rāghavabhaṭṭa on Śakuntalās and Vāsudeva on Karpūramañjarīs quote Māṭṛguptācārya as a writer on Dramaturgy;

¹ See Kane in the work cited p. 388; also in his HSP, pp. 209-12; V. Raghavan as cited above pp. 153-62. Three metrical lines from Tauta are cited by Abhinava p. 291-92

² With regard to Tandu cited on p 90 (vol. 1) we are told that Nandi is another name for Tandu, as the word Muni designates. Bharata (tandu-muni-sabdau nandi-bharatayor apara-narani) Hence Nandi-mata (cited on p. 171). In Abhinava's opinion, stands for the views of Tandu. See above p. 20.

³ Ed. NSP, 1922, pp. 5, 6, 7 (on Rasa), 8 (definition of Nātaka). 13 (Vithyanga), 15 (languages to be employed by various characters), 20 (Bhūsana), 57 (Sancārikā), 62 (Senāpati), 74 (Hasita), 170 (Pātakāsthānaka), 123 (sainc), 126 (Sanskrit employed by Nīca Pātra), 154 (Kancukin), 156 (Pratīharī). 199 (Paricārikā), p. 230 (Phala-yoga), etc.

⁴ Ed. NSP, 1900, p. 5 (Sūtradhāra); cf Aufrecht i, 448a.

and Sundaramisra in his Natya-pradipa (dated 1613 AD.) commenting on Bharata's remarks on Nandi says: asya vyākhyāne matrguptācāryaiķ...iyam udāhrtā.1 This has been taken by S. Lévi to imply that Matrgupta wrote a vyakhyana or commentary on Bharata, and that assuming bim to be the poet who lived under Harşa-Vikramāditya (Rājatarang. iii. 125, 252) we get in him a very early commentator (7th century) on Bharata. But the available evidence does ont appear to be conclusive. Our Matrgupta, as the profuse metrical quotations on dramaturgic topics by Rāghavabhatta and others show, probably wrote an independent metrical work on Dramaturgy, in which he might have in the usual course commented on Bharata's precepts; and the word vyākhyāna need not be construed to mean a commentary. Matrgupta of Kahlana was a king and poet; how is it that he is cited in these works with the designation of Acarya which signifies a teacher? Mātrguptācārya is known to Abhinavagupta who quotes him on music (ch. xxix). Śāradātanaya in his Bhāvaprakāšana quotes his view on Nataka-vastu; Sāgaranandin in his Nāţaka-lakşaṇa-ratna-kośa quotes several verses of his (pp. 5, 14, 20, 21, 23, 50); and Śārngadeva mentions him as an authority on music.2

Udbhafa

As already noted above (p. 32, fn 2), Sārngdeva in his Samgīta-ratnākara (i. 1. 19) informs us that Udbhaṭa was one of the early commentators on Bharata's text. This is very likely, although Udbhaṭa's commentary has not yet been recovered.

¹ Quoted in *IOC* iii, p. 347. Mātṛgupta is also cited by Raṅganātha on *Vikramorvaṣīya* (dated 1659 A. D.). ed. NSP, 1914, p. 5 (on Nāndī); by Sarvānanda on Amara, p. 145 (Adbhuta Rasa), 147 (Bībhatsa Rasa), 150 (Vyabhicāri-bhāvas), 161 (Anubhāva in Ṣṛṅ-gāta), 16 (on Tāla).

² The citations from Matrgupta are collected together by T. R. Chistamani in his Fragments of Matrgupta in JOR ii, 1928, pp. 118-28.

Sārngadeva's statement appears to be confirmed by several citations of Udbhata's views by Abhinavagupta. One of these references, already quoted above (p. 24, fn. 1) occurs in Abhinava's commentary on vi. 10 (p. 266-67) in which it is stated that certain views of Udbhata on textual interpretation were not accepted by Lollata, another commentator on Bharata. On ix. 182 (vol. ii, p. 70) and xviii. 76 (vol. ii, p. 441), again, Abhinava quotes certain readings of the text made out differently by Udbhata. In two other passages (on xxi. 17 and xxi. 42 on Samdhis) Abhinava takes exception to the interpretation of Udbhata as laksya- or agama-viruddha. In still another passage on the Vittis (on xviii, 110 vol. ii, pp. 451-52) Abhinava informs us that Udbhata accepted only three Vrttis (and not the usual Nyāya-cestā, four of Bharata). namely. Anvāva-cestā and Phala-samvitti. In this connexion Abhinava further refers to a certain writer, called Sakaligarbha, who would admit five Vrttis (namely, the four of Bharata and another called Atma-samvitti in place of Udbhata's Phala-samvitti); but these views have been refuted by Lollata and others. Again, Kuntaka (pp. 113-15) disagrees with Udbhata's view of the Sva-sabda-vācyatā of Rasa as being opposed to Bharata's opinion. These detailed references to Udbhata's views or comments on topics dealt with in such far apart chapters as vi, ix, xviii and xxi, make it probable that Udbhata commented on the whole of the Nātya-śāstra.

But this presumption is not applicable to the case of Sakalīgarbha who appears to have flourished between Udbhata and Lollata. He might have been a writer on certain topics of Dramaturgy; but whether he composed a commentary on Bharata is not clear.

Lollata

Lollața is extensively cited by Abhinavagupta not only in ch. vi (on Rasa-sūtra), but also in ch. xii, xiii, xviii and xxi. Lollața is mentioned as rejecting Udbhața's views on the Vritis.

(see above) and on the eleven topics of Nāţya (on vi. 10).¹ Several other characteristic views of Lollaţa are also mentioned; for instance, his view that Rasas are numerous (on vi. 45),² although eight or nine are traditionally accepted for the stage; that Nāṭikā is Ṣaṭpadā (on xviii. 60)³ against Śaṅkuka¹s opinion that it is Aṣṭapadā. References are also made to Lollaṭa¹s views on Dhruvā Tāla (on xii. 14)⁴; on Kakṣyā (xiii. 1)⁵; on what he calls (on xxi. 29) Anusaṃdhi (dealing with the acts of a Patākā-hero); on his omission of xviii. 32 from the text⁴. These references to different parts of the text would go to confirm the tradition that Lollaṭa was also a regular commentator on Bharata's text.

We have no definite material to determine the date of Lollata; but all later citations agree in supporting the tradition that he was earlier than the commentator Sankuka whose theory of Rasa is said to have been directly levelled against that of Lollata. Judging from his name, Lollata was probably a Kashmirian; and if any chronological inference can be drawn from the Kashmirian Abhinavagupta's reference (mentioned above) to an opinion of Udbhata being controverted by Lollata, he was later than or contemporaneous with Udbhata, also a Kashmirian, whose latest date is 813 A.D.

The theory of Rasa advocated by Lollata probably obtained traditionally before he definitely formulated it and became its first noted advocate; for Abhinava in his commentary (on ch. vi) tells us that Dandin in his idea of Rasa follows the same view. Unless we presume Lollata's priority to Dandin, we should take this to indicate that some theory or dogma similar to it was already known to Dandin, even before Lollata brought it into prominence.

Lollata is also taken to be what is technically described as Dīrgha-vyāpāra-vādin with reference to the controversy about the function of Abhidhā; for he is said to have maintained that the primary function of Denotation of a word is

¹ Vol. i, p. 266. 2 Vol. i, p. 299. 3 Vol. ii, p. 436.

⁴ Vol. ii, p 134. 5 Vol. ii, p. 196. 6 Vol. ii, p. 423.

so far-reaching that it is competent in itself to express all other implied or suggested sense. But it is doubtful if this view is directly ascribed to Lollata by any standard Sanskrit theorist of importance, although it is criticised without the name of the promulgator by Manimata (p. 225), Mahimabhatta (p. 27), Hemacandra (p. 215), Vidyānātha (p. 43) and others. Govinda in his Kāvya-pradīpa (p. 149) thinks that adherents of this view are followers of Bhatta-mata. Abhinava attributes a similar view (Locana p. 188) to the Bhatta or Prābhākara school; this might have been the source of Govinda's statement. The Mimamsakas and grammarians had already discussed the question of Abhidhā; and it must not be forgotten that several attempts to explain the fact of Dhvani (suggested sense), including Rasa-dhvani, obtained before the Dhvanikāra himself. It is probable that Lollata was one of those who offered one of the several solutions to the question alluded to in the first verse of the Dhvanyāloka. We shall see that Lollata was probably a Mimamsaka in his view of ·Rasa, even if he was not a Dīrgha-vyāpāra-vādin.

The only direct quotation from Lollata (and not mere consideration of his views) consists of two verses given by Hemacandra (p. 215). If he was a prose commentator, how do these metrical quotations fit in?¹

Śańkuka

Abhinavagupta very frequently refers to Sankuka's views on different dramaturgic topics; e.g. on Ranga-pīţha (on iii, 21-22)²; on Rasa-sūtra (on ch. vi)³; on Nāṭaka (on xviii.10)⁴; on the king as a character (on xviii.12)⁵; on Nāṭakā-bheda (on xviii.60)⁶; on Pratimukha and Vimarsa

¹ V. Raghavan believes (Some Concepts pp. 207-8; JOR vi. p. 169) that Lollata's other name was Aparajiti, son of Aparajita, because a quotation from Aparajiti by Rajasekhara (p. 45) is given by Hemachandra (p. 215) with the name of Lollata.

² Vol. i, p. 75. 3 Vol. i, pp. 239, 298, 318.

⁴ Vol. ii, p. 411. 5 V. ii, p. 414. 6 Vol. ii, p. 436.

Samdhis (on xxi.40,42) etc.¹ As the citations relate to matters covered by ch. iii to xxix, it is probable that Sankuka composed a commentary on the entire text of Bharata. Abhinavagupta informs us (p. 275) that his teacher Bhatta Tauta disapproved of Sankuka's views on Rasa.

To Śańkuka are also ascribed several verses in the authologies of Śārngadhara, Jahlana and Vallabhadeva, —which indicates that there was also a poet of the same name. Kahlana mentions (iv. 703-5) a poet Śańkuka and his poem Bhuvanā-bhyudaya. The reference is to the time of Ajitāpīḍa, whose date is given as 813 A.D. by Cunningham and 816 A.D. by S. P. Pandit. If our Śańkuka is identical with this poet, then he may be assigned to the first quarter of the 9th century.

Bhatta Nāyaka

Basides referring to his view on the Rasa-sūtra of Bharata (ch. vi)³ Abhinavagupta (Locana p. 27: also Abh. bh. xvi. 4)⁴ quotes under the name of Bhatta Nāyaka a verse śabda-prādhānyam āśritya⁵, which Hemacandsa (p. 3-4) gives as a quotation from a work, named Hṛdaya-darpaṇa⁶, and which is also cited without the name of the author by Mahimabhatta and his commentator. Jayaratha also speaks (p. 12) of Bhatta Nāyaka as Hṛdayadarpaṇa-kāra. It is probable, therefore, that some lost work of Bhatta Nāyaka's bore this title; and the references also indicate the probable source

- 1 See P. V. Kane, HSP, pp. 50-51. for six other instances from ch. xxiv to xxix where Sankuka has been cited by Abhinavagupta.
- 2 In the first two anthologies Sankuka is called son of Mayūra, who is identified by some with the author of Sūrya-sataka, a contemporary of Bāṇa.
 - 3 Vol. i, p. 278. 4 Vol. ii, p. 298.
- 5 This verse is also quoted by Jayaratha p. 9. Māṇikyacandra (p. 4) also ascribes the verse to Bhaṭṭa Nāyaka, whom he refers on p. 8 as the *Hṛdayadarpaṇa-kāra*.
- 6 P. V. Kane (HSP p. 187) suggests that the proper name of work was Sahrdaya-darpana, but evidence is meagre to support this suggestion.

of the quotation which occurs immediately before the verse in question in Abhinavagupta. It is, however, not clear whether this Hrdaya-darpana is his alleged lost commentary on Bharata. Mahimabhatta's anonymous commentator tells us that this Hrdaya darpana, like the Vyakti-viveka, was composed with the special object of demolishing the Dhvanitheory formulated by Anandavardhana; and this statement may explain why Abhinavagupta, as an adherent of the theory, takes so much pains to controvert Bhatta Nāyaka's views in his Locana? as well as in his Abhinava-bhāratī. Mahimabhatta, who had a similar object of combating the Dhvani-theory, claims entire originality for his own treatment by boasting that he had never looked into the Darpana at all.4 The citations from the Hrdaya-darpana also indicate that it was probably composed in metrical form, and apparently never took at all the shape of a prose commentary.

A careful examination of the very few passages apparently referring to this work will shew that the topics dealt with in it centre round the question of Dhvani in poetry. in correlation with the theory of Rasa intimately connected therewith. Abhinava, for instance, while discussing (p. 16) the verse bhama dhammia visattho, which is given by Anandavardhana as an instance of suggestion with an expressed injunction implying a prohibition, refutes Bhatta Nāyaka's opinion as to this negative implication. In another place. Abhinava criticises (p. 21) the significance attached by Bhatta Nāyaka

¹ darpano hṛdaya-darpaṇākhyo dhvani-dhvaṃsa-grantho'pi, explaining the pun on the word darpaṇa used by Mahimabhaṭṭa in i. 4.

² Both Bhatta Nāyaka and his *Hṛdaya-darpaṇa* are cited by name in *Locana* pp. 27, 28, 63. Other references occur on pp. 11, 12, 15, 19, 21, 29, 36, 67, 68—all of which consist mostly of direct criticism in support of Dhyani-theory.

³ For instance, on Bharata p. 1: bhaffa-nāyakas tu brahmaṇā paramātmanā yad udāhṛtam.....iti vyākhyānaṃ hṛdaya-darpaṇe pra-syagrahīt.

⁴ adṛṣṭa-darpaṇā mama dhih i. 4.

to the word aham in the verse attā ettha nimajjai, which is discussed by Ānandavardhana as an example of suggestion of a contrary kind where the expressed prohibition implies an injunction. It is evident from these references that Bhatta Nāyaka's work, like Mahimabhatta's, was designed not merely as a refutation of the general theory of Dhvani, but also as a special attack on Ānandavardhana's exposition of the same. To take a minute point, the Dhvanikāra in i. 13 uses the verb vyanktah in the dual number with a special object in view, as Ānandavardhana's (as well as Abhinava's) explanation rightly indicates Bhatta Nāyaka seems to have attacked this use of the dual number, upon which Abhinavagupta remarks (Locana, p. 33): bhatta-nāyakena yad dvi-vacanam dūşitam tad gaja-nimīlikayatva.

commentary on Bharata,² but a metrical treatise in the anustubh with a running prose commentary, dealing with the question of Dhvani, and incidentally with the question of Rasadhvani. No doubt, Abhinava in his own commentary on Bharata, as well numerous other later writers taking their cue from Abhinava, criticises at some length Bhatta Nāyaka's theory of Rasa, along with those of Lollata and Śańkuka and with special reference to Bharata's particular sūtra on the subject in ch. vi (also Locana pp. 67-68); yet Bhatta Nāyaka is nowhere mentioned directly as a commentator on the same text. Very rarely Bhatta Nāyaka's interpretations of particular passages of Bharata are cited by Abhinavagupta, as they are with regard to those of Udbhata, Lollata and Śańkuka.³ It is probable that Bhatta Nāyaka's peculiar theory

¹ Mahimabhatta also refers (p. 19) to this discussion, quoting these words of Abhinava from the Locana.

² As V. V Sovani in Bhandarkar Comm. Volume, p. 390 (contra in JRAS, 1909, pp. 450-52) states.

³ T. R Chintamani collected together 'Fragments of Bhatta Nāyaka' in JOR i, 1927, pp. 267-76; also in Proc. A-I. O. C., Allahabad 1929, ii, pp 155. 193.

of Rasa (which, however, bears a resemblance to Abhinava's own) called for a special refutation in the hands of this champion of the Dhvani-theory, because Bhatta Nāyaka denied the expressive function of Dhvani and attempted to explain the concept by postulating the function of Bhogikaraṇa. But there is no definite indication to shew that this theory of Rasa, being a corollary to Bhatta Nāyaka's general theory of expression, was not incidental to his main thesis, which was directed towards the demolition of the new idea of Dhvani and establishment of another explanation of that concept. This may be the reason why Śārngadeva, in his enumeration of Bhatta Nāyaka.¹

There can hardly be any doubt that Bhatta Nāyaka was familiar with the text of the Dhyanyāloka, including Ānandavardhana's Vrtti, and should, therefore, be placed in a period later than the date of Anandavardhana. The conclusion is supported by the statement of Jayaratha (p. 12) that Bhatta Nāyaka lived after the Dhvanikāra by whom Jayaratha, like many other later writers, invariably means Anandavardhana without distinguishing him from the so-called Dhvanikara. On the other hand, the oldest writer to mention and cite Bhatta Nāyaka is Abhinavagupta, from whom he does not appear to be chronologically very distant. Bhatta Nāyaka, therefore, flourished between the last quarter of the 9th and the last quarter of the 10th century; and it will not be wrong if we assign him to the end of the 9th and the beginning of the 10th century A.D. This date makes it likely that he is identical, as Peterson suggested, with Bhatta Nāyaka who is mentioned by Kahlana (v. 159) as having flourished in the

¹ See p. 32 above, footnote 2. With this view P. V. Kane (HSP, p. 214) agrees. Similarly Ruyyaka, while reviewing the different systems which obtained before his time, mentions Bhatta Nāyaka not as a commentator but as an independent author who advocated a new system in common with other explanations of the Dhvanit theory (p. 9, ed. N. S. P.)

reign of Samkaravarman, son and successor of Avantivarman of Kashmir.

Harsa

Harşa or Śrī-harşa is said to have composed a Vārttika on the Nāţya-śastra. He is cited by Abhinavagupta sometimes by name (on v 7, 180¹; xxix, 101) and sometimes as Vārttika-kṛt or Vārttika-kāra (i. 84; ii. 97-98; iv. 267-68)², while Vārttika without the name of the author³ or Harşa-vārttika (iv, 331)⁴ is also cited. On v. 8-15 there is a prose passage from the Vārttika quoted³. The citations are more profuse from the first six chapters, but there is one reference to ch. xxix. Śāradātanaya (p. 238) refers to Harşa's view that the Toṭaka differs from Nāṭaka in having no Vidūṣaka⁴. As the Vārttika is no longer available no definite conclusion is possible. These citations however, make it highly probable that it might not have been a regular commentary (in spite of its name)², but dealt, mostly in Āryā metre (with occasional prose), with relevant parts of the Nāṭya-śastra.

Kirtidhara

Śārngadeva informs us (see above p. 32, fn 2) that Kīrtidhara was a commentator on Bharata's text. He must have been earlier than Abhinavagupta who tells us (ch.xxix) that not having seen Nandikeśvara's work himself, he is relying on Kīrtidhara's account of it (see above p. 20). There are several references in Abhinava's commentary to Kīrtidhara or

- 1 Vol. i. p. 211 and p. 251.
- 2 Vol. i, p. 31; i, p. 67; i, 172, 174 respectively.
- 3 Vol. i. p. 174, 4 Vol. i. p. 207
- 5 Vol. i, p. 212.
- 6 Śrīharşa Miśra quoted in Prabhākara Bhaṭṭa's Rasa-pradīps (a prose passage) may or not be our author.
- 7 As in the case of Nanyadeva's Bharata-bhāşya or Bharata-vārttika.
- 8 See V. Raghavan in JOR. v, 1932, p. 198; Kane in Pathak Comm. Volume, p. 388.

Kīrtidharācārya on Nāṭya and Nṛtta (ch. iv) 1 and on the Geyādhikāra section. These citations show that Kīrtidhara. like Śārṅgadeva, was interested mostly in music, but they are not sufficient to establish that he wrote a regular commentary on the entire text of Bharata.

Abinavagupta

Although Abhinavagupta contented himself with the writing of commentaries in the field of Sanskrit Poetics, his works have almost the value of independent treatises for their profound erudition and critical acumen. As his reputation in Poetics rests on his exposition of the Dhvani-theory, it would be better to take him up in connexion with the Dhvani-kāra and Ānandavardhana,

The entire text of Abhinava's commentary, called Abhinava-bhāratī, on Bharata's text which consisted of 36 chapters, is not available, either in the printed edition or in any MS. His comments on ch.vii (except the prose portion and the first few verses), ch. viii and ch. xxxiii-xxxiv are missing, and there are also short gaps (e.g. on the last verses of ch. v). As he refers to his Locana in this work, it was composed later.

Nānyadeva

A work called *Bharata-bhāṣya* (also *Bharata-vārttika* in some of its colophons) by Nānyadeva or Nānyapati is available in a unique MS (221 folios) in the BORI collection. The author is called Mithileśvara (king of Mithilā) in one of its verses, while the colophons describe him as Mahāsāmantā-dhipati. The work is unknown to Abhinavagupta who was earlier in date and who is utilised in it but rarely mentioned by name. Nānyadeva is known as the founder of the Karņā-

¹ Vol. i, p. 208.

² BORI Cat, of MSS, xii, no. 111 of 1869-70, pp. 377-83. The work also goes by the name Sarasvan-hṛdayālamkāra. Dr. C. P. Desai of Tarapur, Thana, Bombay, is understood to be editing the work for Khairagarh Music University, M. P.

taka dynasty of Mithilā who ruled from 1097 to 1147 A.D¹. The author mentions another work of his called *Grantha-mahārṇava*.

Although it is called a Bhāṣya, it is not a direct commentary on Bharata's text. It was ambitiously planned in four Amsas, each devoted to one of the four kinds of Abhinaya; but the extant portion, itself extensive, deals only with one kind, namely, Vācika, and relates chiefly to ch. xxviii to xxxiii of the Nātya-śāstra, which deal with music. The MS, though old, is defective, wanting in ch. v. xvi and xvii (the total number of promised chapters being seventeen). Bharata is profusely quoted, but other old authorities like Nārada, Śātātapa, Dattila, Kāśyapa (also Brhat-Kāśyapa and Vrddha-Kāśyapa), Matanga, Brhad-deśī, Nandi-mata, Yaşţika (otherwise unknown), Kīrtidhara, and Viśākhila are frequently cited. Śārngadeva appears to be the only author who cites Nānyadeva.

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¹ EI, i, 395 at p. 364; IHQ, vii, pp, 679-87.

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CHAPTER III

FROM BHĀMAHA TO ĀNANDAVARDHANA

BHĀMAHA

The earliest citation of Bhamaha in later Alamkara literature is to be found in two passages in Anandavardhana's Vṛtti on the Dhvanyāloka (pp. 39, 207); and at p. 236 Ānandavardhana quotes anonymously Bhāmaha iii. 27. The next interesting reference occurs in the commentary of Pratiharendurāja, who informs us (p. 13) that his author Udbhata composed a work, presumably a commentary on Bhamaha which is described as Bhāmaha-vivarana. This statement is confirmed by Abhinavagupta (Locana pp. 10, 40, 159, vivaranakrt) and Hemachandra (Comm. pp. 17, 110); while Ruyyaka cites the commentary generally as bhāmahīya udbhata-laksana (p. 183) and Samudrabandha discribes it as kāvyālamkāra-vivrti (p. 89). There are also numerous passages in Udbhaţa's independent work, Kāvyālamkāra-samgraha, which unmistakably copy some of the definitions of poetic figures directly from Bhamaha, and do not hesitate to repeat the very language of the earlier work.1

Vāmana, Udbhaṭa's contemporary, also appears to betray an acquaintance with Bhāmaha's text.² Bhāmaha, for

- 1 See, for instance, the definitions of the figures rasavat, atliayokti, sasandeha, sahokti, apahnuti, utpreksā, yathāsankhyā, aprastuta-prašansā paryāyokta, ākṣepa, vibhāvanā, virodha and bhāvika.—Bhāmaha is quoted extensively by Abhinavagupta and other later writers.
- 2 Bhāmaha's work called Bhāmahālaṃkāra (but Kāvyālaṃkāra is the first verse) consists of six Paricchedas or chapters and about 400 verses. The topics covered are: I. Purposes of Kāvya, its definition and divisions from different points of view; Sargabandha, Kathā and Ākhyāyikā; reference to Vaidarbha and Gauda modes;

instance, defines the figure Upamā (ii. 30) as viruddhenopamānena.....upameyasya yat sāmyam guṇa-leśena sopamā; and
Vāmana seems to paraphrase this definition in the concise
form of a Sūtra: upamānenopameyasya guṇa-leśataḥ sāmyam
upamā (iv. 2. 1).¹ Again, speaking of effective implication
(atiśayavān arthaḥ) to be found in Upamā, Bhāmaha lays
down (ii, 50):

yasyātišayavān arthaḥ kathaṃ so'saṃbhavo mataḥ/istaṃ cātiśayārthatvam upamotprekşayor yathā//

Reading together Vāmana iv. 2. 20 and 21 (anupapattir asaṃbhavaḥ and na viruddho'tiśayaḥ), we find that Vāmana is apparently repeating the same view; and in his Vṛtti on the first Sūtra, he adds upamāyām atiśayasyeṣṭatvāt, making it clear in the next Sūtra that an effective implication (atiśaya), which is contradictory, should be avoided. Vāmana also reproduces anonymously a verse of an unknown poet whose name is given by Bhāmaha (ii. 46) with the same verse as Śākhavardhana. Such repetition of views in more or less standardised phraseology in a technical treatise, or the quotation of the same illustrative verse in a similar context need not be taken as conclusive; but Vāmana, in his Vṛtti on v. 2. 38, actually though not accurately, quotes a part of a verse from Bhāmaha ii. 27, and comments on the peculiar usage of the word bhanguram employed therein.

some Doṣas pertaining generally to the Kāvya. II-III. The three Guṇas (Mādhurya, Prasāda and Ojas); treatment of Alamkāras which ends with ch. iii (for a list of the poetic figures see vol. ii. ch. ii(i). IV. Eleven Doṣas, with illustrations. V. Eleven Doṣas again which arise from a faulty Pratijñā, Hetu or Dṛṣṭanta, VI. Sauśabdya or grammatical correctness (elaborated later by Vāmana in fifth Adhikarṇa of his work).

- 1 Cf Bharata xvi. 41.
- 2 The verse is quoted with Bhāmaha's name in Jayamangalā on Bhatti x. 21; ananymously in the Vakrokti-jivita (along withother verses from Bhāmaha) and in Lacana p. 40 anonymously.

This will justify us in placing Bhāmaha chronologically before Udbhata and Vāmana who, as we shall see, flourished in the last quarter of the 8th century A. D., and will give us one terminus to the date of Bhāmaha.

With regard to the other terminus, controversy has been keen and busy. Pathak finds in the mention of a nyāsakāra in Bhamaha vi. 36 a clear reference to the Buddhist Jinendrabuddhi, author of a commentary (ed. Varendra Research Society, Rajshahi 1913, 1919-25) on the Kāśikā, and comes to the conclusion that "as the nyāsakāra (meaning Jinendra) lived about 700 A. D., Bhāmaha must be assigned to the 8th century".1 Against this K. P. Trivedi has demonstrated that the allusion to the opinion of the nyāsakāra cannot be taken as an unmistakable reference to Jinendrabuddhi's views, and that the existence of some other nyāsakāras is also made probable by the citations of Mādhava, as well as by a punning passage in Bāna's Harsa-Jacobi has joined issue by adding a doubt on the carita.3 correctness of the date assigned by Pathak to Jinendrabuddhi who, on the authority of Kielhorn, was probably later than Haradatta (d. 878 A. D.).

No fresh light is thrown on the question by the conjecture⁵ that Bhāmaha in i. 42 refers to the *Megha-dūta* by his condemnation of the poetical device of employing clouds, among other things, as messengers; nor by Pathak's other equally fanciful supposition that Māgha ii. 86b refers to Bhāmaha

¹ IA xli p. 232 ff. at p. 235, see also JBRAS xxiii pp. 25-26.

² IA xlii pp. 204 f, and at pp. 260-1

³ krta-guru-paaanvāsāḥ (ed N S. P. p. 96), explained by Samkara as krto'bhvasto guru-pade durbodha-sabde nyāso vrttir vivarano yaiḥ.

⁴ Sb. der Pieuss. Akad xxiv (1922), pp 210-11.

⁵ Haricand, L'Art Poétique de l'Inde p 77; J. Nobel in 2.DMG laxiii, p. 192.

i. 16.1 Nothing, again, is gained by the controversy over the question whether Bhāmaha, the son of Rakrilagomin and worshipper of Sarva, was a Buddhist, as indicated by the opening and closing verses of his work.2 Jacobi however, has shewn's that Bhamaha has made considerable use of the teachings of Buddhist philosophers in ch. v, and that the upper limit to Bhāmaha's date should be determined with reference to that of Buddhist Dharmakirti, some of whose philosophical doctrines Bhāmaha has utilised even to the repetition of Darmakirti's actual phraseology. Dharmakīrti is placed by Jacobi between the sojourn in India of Yuan Chwang and Yi-tsing respectively (630-643 and 673-695 A. D.), as he is not known to the former, while the latter refers to him among those of late years.4 The upper limit, therefore, of Bhamaha's date should be fixed at the third quarter of the 7th century A. D. Santaraksita in his Tativa-samgraha (ed. GOS, 1926, p. 219, verses 912-14), who is said to have flourished about 705-762 A.D., cites three verses of Bhāmaha (vi. 17-19) criticising the Buddhist Apoha-vāda. This would also go to establish that Bhāmaha cannot be placed much later than the seventh century.

We can. therefore, place Bhāmaha approximately in the period between the last quarter of the 7th and the middle of

¹ But see Dandin 1 10; Vāmana j. 1. 1 (1711); Rudraţa ii. 1 and Ānandavardhana p. 5, for the same idea of Sabda and arthu as constituents of poetry

² On this controversy, see JRAS 1905, pp. 535 f; JRAS, 1908, pp. 543f, Trivedi introd. to Pratāparudra; Haricand op. cit. p. 71; Pathak in IA 1912, p. 235.

³ op vit pp. 211-12. G. Tucci (Bhāmaha and Dinnāga in IA, June 1930) is of opinion that Bhāmaha's logical theories allude to Dinnāga, and not to Dharmakīrtī who was posterior to Bhāmaha.

⁴ See Takakusu, Record of the Buddhist Religion. 1896, p. 181: cf p. lviii. Tāranātha in his Geschichte (tr. Schiefner pp. 184-5) makes him a contemporary of the Tibetan king, Strong-bstan-sgampo, who died about 650 A.D. Cf. Kern, Manyal of Indian Buddhism, p. 130.

8th century. As it is probable that he might have been a younger contemporary of Dharmakīrti's and also presumably lived some time before his commentator Udbhaṭa, it would not be wrong if we place him towards the end of the 7th and the commencement of the 8th century A. D.

(2)

We have already discussed the relation which Bharata's treatment of Alamkāras might have borne to Bhāmaha's much fuller and later disquisition. What we find in Bharata constitutes the earliest speculation on the subject that we possess; but Bhāmaha himself tells us that he had predecessors whose works he apparently utilised. While referring to these predecessors (or contemporaries) generally as anye, apare or kecit. Bhāmaha cites twice by name one Medhāvin in ii. 40, 88. One of these passages is referred to by Nami-sādhu on Rudrata xi. 24, where (as well as in two other places on i. 2, ii. 2) the full name is given as Medhāvirudra, which form also occurs in Rājašekhara (p. 12)4. This writer was thus earlier than Bhāmaha but probably later than Bharata.

Bhāmaha's work is divided into six chapters with a total of about 400 verses (mostly in Anuştubh) (see above p. 46.

- 1 i. 13, 24; 11 4, 57; in. 4; iv. 12 etc.
- 2 i. 14, 31; ii. 6, 8; iii. 4; iv. 6 etc.
- 3 ii. 2, 37, 93; 1ii. 54 etc. He also cites one Rāmaśarman in ii. 19, but from ii. 58 this author appears to be a poet; the name of his work is given as Acyutottara. The Rājamitra cited in ii. 45 appears from iii. 10 to be a Kāvya. Besides Nyāsa (vi. 36). Pāṇini (vi. 62-63) and Kaṇabhaksa (v. 17), we have mention of Sākavardhana (ii. 47) and a work called Aśmaka-vaṃśa. These citations are not of much use for chronological purposes.
- 4 Rājašekhara couples Medhāvirudra's name with that of Kumāradāsa and adds the information that he was a born-blind poet The name does not constitute the names of two different poets, Medhāvin and Rudra, as some writers suggest, nor need we take it on the late authority of the Trikānda-šeṣa as a name of Kālidāsa.—Hultzsch (ed. Megha-dūta p. xi) states that Vallabhadeva in his comm. (xi. 6) cites Medhāvirudra, but this is not found in the printed text.

fa 2); it is smaller in extent than Dandin's work (about 660 verses). At one time it was believed, on the indication given by the Jayamangalā on Bhattı, that the Alamkārachapters in that Kāvya², especially canto x, was meant to illustrate the rhetorical teachings of Bhamaha in particular; but the date now assigned to Bhamaha will readjust his relation to Bhatti in a new light. Bhatti tells us in xxii. 35 that he composed his peem in Valabhī ruled over by Śridharasena². It appears that no less than four Śrīdharasenas ruled at Valabhī roughly between 500 and 650 A.D., of whom the last flourished, as his latest grant shows, in 651 A.D. Bhatti, therefore, at the latest, lived in the first half of the 7th century; and if, as his editor concludes.4 he may be assigned to the end of the 6th and the beginning of the 7th century, he was certainly older than Bhāmaha by almost a century, Bhāmaha probably knew his work and therefore remarked, while dismissing verbal juggleries like prahelikā (ii, 20):

kāvyāny api yadīmāni vyākhyā-gamyāmi śāstruvat |
utsavaḥ sudhiyām eva hanta durmedhaso hatāḥ | /,
with a pointed reference to Bhaţţi's self-boasting in xxii. 34.:
vyākhyā-gamyam idam kāvyam utsavaḥ sudhiyām alam /,
hatā durmedhasas cāsmin vidvat-priyatayā mayā / /,
The treatment of Alamkāras in Bhaţţi may, therefore, be

- 1 Jacobi in ZDMG lxiv, p. 130f.
- 2 The three captos of this Kāvya (x-xii) comprising what is called Prasanna-kāṇḍa are supposed to illustrate matters concerning Poetics. Thus, canto x (75 verses) illustrates Alamkāras, xi (47 verses) Mādhurya Guna and xii (87 verses) the figure Bhāvika which is called a Prabandha-guṇa. The Bhaṭṭi-kūvya consists of 22 cantos, chiefly illustrating rules of Sanskrit Grammar.
- 3 kāvyam idam vihitam mavā valabhyām / śrīdharasenanarendra-pālitāyām. The Jayamangalā reads śrīdhara-sūnu-narendra in
 the second line, but this cannot be supported in view of the fact
 that we do not hear of any prince of the name Narendra, son of
 śrīdhara, in the list of Valabhī princes known to us. Mallinātha
 and Bharatamallika do not comment on this verse.

⁴ ed. B.S.S. Introd. p. xxii.

presumed to supply one of the missing links in the history of rhetorical speculations anterior to Bhāmaha. A remarkable coincidence of treatment, which probably started the theory of Bhatti's appropriation of Bhāmaha's teachings, is at once noticeable not only in the order, number and presumed naming and characterisation of different poetic figures; but a detailed examination will at the same time shew beneath this general agreement there are enough discrepancies which will indicate that neither of them follows scrupulously the views of the other. The agreement apparently shows that the two authors were not chronologically distant from each other by such a considerable length of time as might betoken a material difference in the number, order or definition of the poetic figures: while the discrepancies may be reasonably explained as indicating that they did not probably draw from the same source.

The special object of the particular canto in Bhatti being that of illustrating the various forms of poetic figures prevalent in his time, we may presume that it was probably based on a particular treatise on Alamkāra to which the poet generally adheres. He is said to have mentioned in all 38 such independent figures, along with 39 subspecies of some individual figures. He does not himself give the names of these figures, but they are indicated by the Jayamangalā, as well as in some MSS which apparently preserve the traditional nomenclature. These, with one trifling exception (udāra=udātta), cofrespond to the particular names given to them in Bhāmaba. As to the order or sequence of treatment, a comparative table will show that Bhāmaha gives the first 23 figures (up to višesokti) in the same order as in

¹ The commentators, however, difter among themselves in the naming of the poetic figures in several stanzas.—The Jayamangalā is printed in the NSP ed. of the Kāvya (1887), while the commentary of Mallinātha is given in the BSS ed. (in 2 vols. 1898). The commentary of Bharatan allika along with Jayamangalā has been edited in 2 vols. Calcutta 1871-73.

Bhatti with the exception of the pairs, rūpaka, and dīpaka, arthāntara-nyāsa and ākṣepa, which are given in an inverse order. The rest of the figures appear with a slightly different arrangement, because Bhāmaha admits aprastuta-praśaṃsā omitted by Bhatti, and adopts a somewhat different order in mentioning the five figures here treated in common. until we come to virodha. From here, again, the order is the same, excepting that Bhāmaha mentions bhāvika (which is separately illustrated in another canto by Bhatti), while Bhatti admits an unknown figure nipuṇa, and adds hetu and vārtā which are expressly rejected by Bhāmaha. As the exposition of Jayamanglā shows, Bhatti generally follows the definitions of Bhāmaha where the figures are common (even in the cases of subspecies of these figures¹), with only a few exceptions.

These exceptions, though few, are yet significant. They refer in particular to the figures yamaka (of which Bhatti mentions 20, while Bhāmaha only 5 subspecies), upamā (where the treatment of subspecies is slightly divergent), rūpaka (of which the four subspecies of Bhatti do not correspond to the two of Bhāmaha), aprastuta-prasamsā omitted by Bhatti, and nipuṇa omitted by Bhāmaha. At the same time, Bhāmaha mentions but rejects prahelikā, hetu, sūkṣma, leśa and vārtā, of which Bhatti admits only hetu (probably as an afterthought) and vārtā. Bhatti does not recognise svabhāvokti, which is mentioned but apparently disfavoured by

^{- 1} e.g. the figure ākṣepa, of which the two subdivisions uktaviṣaya and vakṣyamāṇa-viṣaya are found in both Bhāmaha and
Bhaṭṭi, they being unaware of the different interpretation of Vāmana
and the somewhat fine differentiations of Daṇḍin. The same remark
applies to dīpaka and its three subspecies, which do not agree with
the exposition of Bharata, Daṇḍin or Vāmana. Cf also the three
subspecies of śleṣa viz. sahokti-ślo, upamā-ślo and hetu-ślo, illustrated
by Bhaṭṭi and mentioned by Bhāmaha in iii. 17, although later writers,
like Daṇḍin and Udbhaṭa, speak of śleṣa as coming with many
other figures. Pratīhārendurāja distinctly alludes (p. 47) to this
division admitted by Bhāmaha: bhāmaho hi "tat sahoktyupamāhetu-nirdeśāt trividham yathā" iti śliṣṭasya traividhyam āha.

Bhāmaha. It is possible that Bhatti's original ended naturally with āśis, as Bhāmaha's work itself does; but he tacked on hetu and nipuna¹ as two supplementary figures popular in his time. The bhāvika, which both Bhāmaha and Dandin call a prabandha-guna, is said to have been illustrated by Bhatti in a separate canto (xii), entitled bhāvikatva-pradarśana. But by far the greatest divergence is noticeable in the treatment of the subspecies of yamaka, rūpaka and upamā. No two writers are indeed agreed with regard to the treatment and classification of yamaka, and Bhatti on this point is scarcely in agreement with any of the known writers on the subject, such as Bharata, Dandin Rudrata, the author of the Agni-purana and Bhoja among earlier authorities. Probably he is drawing upon some old author whose work is not known to us.² In the classification of rūpaka, which Bhāmaha subdivides into samasta-vastuvisaya and ekadeśa-vivarti. Bhatti seems to follow a different tradition which mentions four subspecies, respectively

- 1 This figure is included in udāra or udātta by Jayamangalā, while Bharatamallika and Mallinātha take it as an illustration of preyas on the authority of Daṇḍin and Devānātha (the latter probably a commentator on Mammaṭa having the same name).
- 2 The names of some of these subspecies of yamaka are now lost but for the naming of them in Bhatti, and later authors speak in altogether different terminology. Some of these are apparently preserved in Bharata, who mentions as many as ten subspecies, but in most cases they are differently defined. For instance, the samudga of Bhatti may be the same figure as defined by Bharata, but the yukpāda of Bhatti x. 2 is called vikrānta by Bharata and is known as sandasta in Rudratta. Similarly the pādānta illustrated in X. 3 is called amredita in Bharata; while cakravala of Bharata is different from the figure so named in Bhatti and seems to coincide with the käñci of the latter, the kāñci of Bharata being an altogether different subspecies. It appears that names like vinta, mithuna, or vipatha cannot be traced in any of the existing works, but some of the kinds illustrated by Bhatti under these strange names may be found under different designations in other writers later than Bhatti. In naming these in Bhatti, the Jayamangalā is probably following a tradition or an authority entirely unknown to us.

designated kamalaka (višistopamā-yukta). avatamsaka (šesārthānvavasita or khaṇḍa-rūpaka¹), ardha-rūpaka and lalāmaka (anvarthopamā-yukta). In the subspecies of upamā, Bhaṭṭi illustrates upamā with iva and yathā (in common with Bhāmaha); and his luptopamā and taddhitopomā probably correspond to some extent to samāsopamā and upamā with vat mentioned by Bhāmaha. But Bhaṭṭi does not illustrate prativastūpamā of Bhāmaha nor does he refer to nindoo, praśaṃsoo, ācikhyāsoo and māloo, criticised by Bhāmaha but recognised by Daṇḍin. At the same time, Bhaṭṭi's sahoo and samoo have nothing directly corresponding to them in Bhāmaha.

It will be clear from this brief exposition that, leaving aside the subspecies, there is a general agreement between the treatments of Bhaṭṭi and Bhāmaha with regard to the independent poetic figures. It may be noted that Bhāmaha agrees with Bhaṭṭi in taking ananvaya, sasaṃdeha, upamārūpaka and utprekṣāvayava as self-standing figures, while Daṇḍin includes the first two in the sub-species of upamā, and the last two in those of rūpaka and utprekṣā respectively. Bhāmaha also agrees with Bhaṭṭi in rejecting prahelikā, sūkṣma and leśa; but vārtā and hetu, also similarly rejected by Bhāmaha, are admitted by Bhaṭṭi. Daṇḍin expressly recognises all these, excepting vārtā in place of which he probably admits the more comprehensive svabhāvokti, which

- 1 mentioned in Vāgbhaļālamkāra iv. 66.
- 2 Bharata (xvi. 49-50) mentions nindo^{*} and prasamso^{*}, while his kalpito^{*} probably corresponds to ācikhyāso^{*}. The kalpito^{*} is admitted by Vāmana (iv. 2. 2) but apparently defined in a different sense.
- 3 See also H. R. Divekar in JRAS, 1929, pp, pp. 825-41 for a comparison and contrast of treatment made respectively by Bhāmaha and Bhatti.

Dandin is followed in this view by all later writers, except Vāmana, who still regards these as independent figures. It seems, therefore, that Vāmana vi. 3. 33 is a criticism of Dandin ii. 358, and not vice versa, as Peterson supposes.

is disfavoured by Bhamaha and not illustrated by Bhatti The most material discrepancy with reference to independent figures occurs in the remarkable omission in Bhatti of aprastuta-prasamsā (which, like svabhāvokti, is a recognised figure in later times) and in the occurrence of nipuna unknown in later literature. Coming to the subspecies, however, the discrepancies are more striking. Admitting that some of the fine differentiations, as in the case of Dandin's innumerable subvarieties of independent figures, may have been invented by the ingenuity of the theorist himself, this argument does not seem to apply very well to Bhatti, who was himself no theorist but only professed to illustrate the poetic figures popular in his time and presumably based his treatment on some standard treatise. The conclusion, therefore, is likely that Bhatti made use of a text unknown to Bhamaha but not materially differing from Bhamaha's own sources; and that the interval between these two authors did not witness much change in the discussion of poetic figures, except what is apparent in the simplification of the treatment of yamaka and rūpaka, in the dropping of a figure like nipuna and adding an important figure or an important sub-figure like aprastuta-prasamsā or prativastūpamā respectively. The progress is not so remarkable as that indicated by the enormous stride made in the interval between Bharata who mentions only four independent figures, and Bhatti, who mentions thirty-eight.1

I Although the name Bhāmaha is not a common one in Sanskrit, it attaches itself (besides two verses in Subhāṣitāvalī 1644-1645 that are also found in our text ii. 92, iii. 21) to a commentator on Vararuci's Prūkrta-nrakāsa, who is probably a different author. The Kāmadhenu comm. on Vāmana also cites several verses from a treatise apparently on the kalās by Bhāmaha (p. 29. ed. Benares); but as our Bhāmaha, as well as his Bhāmahālamkāra (p. 39), is also cited in several places in the same commentary, it is possible that these verses occurred in some lost chapter of his work where he mentioned the names of the kalās (atra kalānām uddešaḥ kṛto bhāmahena preceding the verses cited). Nārayaṇa in his commentary

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Edition. Text (i) by K. P. Trivedi as Appendix vni to his ed. of Pratāpa-rudra° in BSS, Bombay 1909. The edition is based on Madras MS no. 12920 (Cat. xii, p. 8675). The work is named Bhāmahālaṃkāra. (ii) by P. V. Naganatha Sastry, with Eng. trs. and notes, Tanjore 1927. Also separately text only, Tanjore 1927. (iii) by B. N. Sarma and B. Upadhaya, Chowkhamba Sanskrit Series, Benares 1928. None of these printed texts can serve as a critical edition. The MS material is meagre and citations from Bhāmaha in later writers have readings which have not been considered. The text at many points is unsatisfactory.

Commentary. The only known comm. is Bhāmaha-vivaraṇa by Udbhaṭa, which is now lost. See above p. 46.

DANDIN

(1)

The date of Dandin. author of the Kāvyādarša, is one of the most difficult problems in the chronology of Alamkāra literature. Anandavardhana does not directly cite him, as he cites Bhāmaha, and the earliest mention of Dandin's name occurs in Pratīhārendurāja (p. 26). Dandin's own work gives us hardly any clue. His references to the Brhatkathā written in bhūta-bhāsā (i. 38), or to the Setu-bandha known to him in māhārāṣṭrī Prakrit (i. 34) throw little light on the question; and no definite chronological conclusion is deducible from the verses ii. 278-79, which express, under the form of the figure preyas, the supreme gratification of a certain king, Rājavarman (or Rātavarman), on the occasion of his obtaining the much-coveted beatific vision of his adored deity. The solution proposed to the

on the Vṛṭṭa-raṭnākara (pp. 5-6) quotes long passages from Bhāmaha which, if authentic, indicate that Bhāmaha might have written also on Metrics.

1 Rajavarman is conjectured by some (Rangacharya's preface p.

prahelikā in iii. 114 (also cf. iii. 112) by Taruṇavācaspati and other commentators that it refers to the Pallava kings of Kāñcī ¹ only supports the Tamil tradition that Daṇḍin was probably a South Indian author. The allusion to Daṇḍin i, 1, again, in a verse attributed by Śārṅgadhara (no. 180) to Vijjā or Vijjakā (whose date is unknown but who is tentatively supposed by some to be Vijayā, wife of Candrāditya and daughter-in-law of Pulakeśin II, about 659 A.D.),² implies merely a pleasant raillery at the expense of Daṇḍin by some later boastful poetess.

The only definite terminus to Daṇḍin's date is obtained from references in South Indian vernacular works on Alam-kāra, belonging in all probability to the 9th century A.D., which cite him as an established authority. The Sinhalese treatise Siya-bas-lakara, which Barnett thinks cannot "in any case be later than the 9th century A.D." cites Daṇḍin in v. 2 as one of its authorities. The Kanarese work Kavirāja-mārga (in three chapters), attributed to the Rāṣṭrakūṭa prince Amoghavarṣa Nṛpatuṅga (who flourished in the first half of

- 8; also Agashe's preface to Daśakumāra ed. B. S. S. pp. lxii f) to be Rājasiṃhavarman, otherwise known as Narasiṃhavarman II of Kāñcī end of the 7th century), one of whose birudas (viz. kālakāla which is also a name of Siva) Daṇḍin is supposed to have alluded to in iii. 50; while iii. 25 is presumed to imply a pun referring to the royal token (mahāvarāha) of Cālukya Pulakeśin II. But the passage under discussion looks like a reference to a legendary rather than a contemporary prince; and, as Pischel suggested, the entire verse 278 may have been taken directly from a work referring to his story. Cf Jacobi op. cit. p. 214.
- 1 The phrase asta-varna occurring in the prahelikā is also found, as G. K. Sankara points out, in the Mamandur Inscription of Mahendravarman I. Premachandra on Dandin interprets pundraka instead of pallava in the verse, which fact indicates that it is capable of a different interpretation.—There are references to Kāverī, Cola and Kalinga in iv. 43-44.
 - 2 See Agashe op. cit. pp. lix f.
- 3 JRAS, 1905, p. 841. The work has been edited by Hendrick Jayatilaka, Colombo 1892.

the 9th century), gives six verses which are exact translations of corresponding verses in Dandin. Pathak, in the introduction to his edition (1898) of this work (p. 19), further adds that in ch. iii most of the verses "are either translations or adaptations from the Kāvyādarśa," and that there are also convincing indications of Dandin's "influence on other parts of the work" as well.

This will give us the 9th century as the lower limit to Dandin's work, a conclusion which may also be established by showing that Dandin was probably earlier than Vamana. who may be assigned to the beginning of the same period. We need not enter into this point in detail here, but there are several unmistakable indications which show that Vamana's work betrays a further progress in the elaboration of some of the fundamental ideas which are dealt with by Dandin. The stress which Dandin puts on the theory of Rīti (which he calls Marga) is carried to its furthest extreme by Vāmana, who elevates Rīti to the rank of the very essence of poetry. While Dandin mentions two types of Marga, Vamana adds an intermediate third Riti: and from Mammata ix. 4 we learn that Vamana was the first to suggest this threefold division.2 Again, while Bhamaha and Dandin apparently engage in a controversy over the classification of Kavya into Kathā and Ākhyāyikā, Vāmana peremptorily brushes aside all discussion and refers the curious reader to the works of "others." Dandin is also anxious to show, in the course of a long digression, that the word iva is indicative of utpreksā (which figure itself is admitted by Bhāmaha ii. 88 only in

¹ viz., those defining asadhāranopamā, asambhavopamā, anssayākķepa, višeķokti, netu and attšayokti respectively.

² It is noteworthy also that Dandin is unaware of the more or less technical term *rīti*, made so familiar by Vāmana, but uses the almost synonymous expression *mārga*, also used by Vāmana in iii. 1. 12.

³ yac ca kathākhyāyikā mahākāvyam iti tallakṣaṇaṃ ca nātīve hṛdayaṅgamam ity upekṣitam asmābhiḥ, tad anyto grāhyam, on 1. 3. 32.

deference to the views of Medhāvin); but to Vāmana (iv. 3. 9. vṛtti) it is already an established fact. Such instances can be easily multiplied, but what is given here will be enough to indicate Daṇḍin's priority to Vāmana.¹ and fix the lower limit of his date at the end of the 8th and the commencement of the 9th century².

- I It is supposed by Kielhorn (with whom Peterson in his preto Dasakumāra agrees) that Dandin II. 51, in which some of the upamā-doņas are justified, is directed against Vāmana iv. 2. 8f. implying thereby that Dandin is later than Vamana. But if we take the texts of Bhamaha, Dandin and Vamana together on this point. we can only make out the following facts. Bhāmaha, in accordance with the opinion of Medhavin, brings forward (ii. 39-40) seven upamā-doşas, viz., deficiency (hīnutva), impossibility (asambhava), disparity of gender (linga-bheda), disparity of number (vacana-bheda). contrariety (viparya)a), excess (adhikatva) and non-similitude (asādršya.) Dandin, tacitly assuming these, only remarks about two pairs of them (viz. disparity of gender and number, excess and deficiency) that they do not necessarily disturb comparison if they do not wound the cultivated sensibility. In this he is substantially following Bhamaha, who says generally that the upameya cannot in every respect be similar to the upamena (ii. 43), a dictum which is implicitly accepted by most later writers, who define upamā as bhedābhedapradhāne upamā. Therefore, deficiency etc. become faults only when they disturb the sense of appreciation of the man of taste. Vāmana, on the other hand, mentions six upamā-doṣas instead of seven, including viparyaya in adhikatva and hinatva (iv. 2. 11 vrtti). with the final pointed remark: ata evasmakan mate sad dosah. It appears, therefore, that Dandin ii. 51f is a link in the chain between Bhamaha ii. 39f and Vamana iv. 2. 8f
- 2 Pischel's argument (pref. to Strig. til.) that Dandin is identical with the author of Mrcchakatika on the ground that Dandin ii. 362 (st. limpatīva, ed. Bibl. Indica) occurs also in that drama (ed. N.S.P. 1916, i. 34) lands us, apart from other objections, in the absurdity of identifying Dandin with Bhāsa as well, inasmuch as the same verse is also found in the so-called Bhāsa-damas, Cārudatta (i. 19) and Bāla-carita (i. 15). The attribution, again, of the same verse in Sārngadhara 3603 and Vallabhadeva 1890 to Bhartrmentha and Vikramāditya further discredits Pischel's theory. The occurrence of the verse in Dandin ii. 226 with an introductory iti (cf Premachandra's remarks

(2)

The upper limit is not so easy to settle. Peterson, following Mahesacandra Nyāyaratna, points out that Daṇḍin ii. 197 is a reminiscence of a passage in Bāṇa's Kādambarī p. 102, l. 16. (ed. BSS), and Jacobi is inclined to accept this view, Bāṇa lived about 606-647 A. D. in the reign of king Harṣa, whose biographer he was. Jacobi also points out a resemblance between Daṇḍin ii. 302 and Māgha ii. 4. Pathak, again, remarks² that Daṇḍin's threefold classification of karman anto nirvartya, vikārya and prāpya (ii. 240) is taken from Bhartṛhari's Vākyapadīya iii. 45f. Bhartṛhari, according to Yi-tsing died about 651 A.D., while Māgha probably belonged to the second half to the 7th century³. Thus Bāṇa, Bhartṛhari

on this point) only shows that Dandin did not disdain to borrow well-known verses for purposes of illustration and criticism, as he himself admits in a general way in i. 2. It should also be noted that in the Bibl. Indica ed. of the text, the verse is given twice (1) as a halt-verse quotation in ii. 226 and (2) in full ii. 362. But this reading, on which apparently Pischel's theory was based, is doubtful, and is contrary to readings in other MSS. In the Tibetan version of the text (JRAS, 1903), as well as in the Madras edition, the verse occurs only once as a half-verse quotation in ii. 226, the full verse being omitted in the text and given in the Madras ed. only in the accompanying commentary. Pischel is hardly accurate in stating that Pratītārendu attributes this verse to Daṇḍin; for the commentator, in the course of his discussion on utprek a simply says (p. 26) that Dandin has already discussed at great length that the verse limptīva is an illustration of utprek a containing utīsaya.

1 Pref. to Daśakumāra°, new ed. 1919, p. ix. Other such reminiscences are presumed in Danqin 1. 45 (= \$akuntalā 1. 20, ed. M. Williams; Cf. JRAS, 1905 p. 841f), ii. 286 (=Raghu viii. 57), 11. 129 (=\$akuntaiā i. 26) etc. Taruṇavācaspati is of opinion (on 1. 2) that Danqin consulted the usages of poets like Kālidāsa. See other parallel passages collected together by Agashe (preface to Daśakumāra, pp. liv f).

^{2 1.4} xli, 1912 p. 237.

³ See Kielhorn in GN, 1906. p. 143-46. Cf Magha 11.83 where he shows himself fully conversant with Poetics: also ii. 8, 86, 87,

and Māgha probably all belong the same age and flourished in the first half or the middle of the 7th century.

These evidences, although suggestive, do not in their nature appear to be decisive; and we are ultimately thrown upon the question of Dandin's relation to Bhamaha, which might support these evidences and with reference to which indeed the chronology of Dandin should be settled. If Bhamaha's priority to Dandin can be definitely established, then we arrive with this at a more or less satisfactory limit to the date of the latter. The question is, no doubt, beset with many difficulties; but so far as a comparative study of their respective texts indicates, the presumption is strong in favour of Bhāmaha's priority; because, while Dandin criticises Bhāmaha's innovations. Bhāmaha apparently pever does so in cases of Dandin's innovations which are indeed much more numerous. The materials for such a critical study (apart from a consideration of their general theories) consist of several passage, occurring in their respective texts, which are either (1) identical or very similar in phraseology, or (2) so closely related to each other that the one author appears to be criticising the other. As the question has already engaged a great deal of controversy, which has thrashed out almost all the details we will here discuss it very briefly. As instances of the first group of passages, we may cite Bh i. 20ab and D i. 7cd; Bh. i. 17cd and Di. 29ab (definition of Mahākāvya); Bh ii. 66ab and D ii. 4cd (enumertion of certain Alamkāras);

Magha's date, see S. K. De, *Hist. Skt. Lit.* Calcutta 1942, pp. 88-89 and references contained therein.

¹ M T. Narasımhıengar in JRAS, 1905, pp. 53f; K. B. Pathak in JBRAS xxiii, p. 19; R. Narasımhachar in IA xli, 1912, p. 90; p. 232; Trivedi, introd. to Pratāparuara p. 32 and IA, xlii, 1913 p. 258-74; H. Jacebi in ZDMG, lxiv, p. 134, in SBAW, xxiv, 1922 (Bhāmaha und Daudin, ihr Alter etc), p. 210-226, and xxxi, 1928 (Zur Frühgeschichte d ind. Poetik); J. Nebel in ZDMG, lxxiii, 1919, p. 190f and his Beitraege zur aelteren Geschichte des Alamkārašāstra, Berlin 1911, p. 78, P. V. Kane in HSP. pp. 96-108, etc.

Bh ii. 87ab and D ii. 244ab (illustration of Vārtā); Bh iii. 1ab and D ii. 5cd (enumeration of certain Alamkāras); Bh iii. 53 and D iii. 363 (the figure Bhāvika); Bh iii. 5 and D ii. 276 (illustration of Preyas); Bh iv. 1-2 and D iv. 2-3 (enumeration of Doṣas); Bh iv. 8ab and D iv. 5ab (definition of Apārtha). The verbal coincidence in these passages is so striking that there can be no doubt that it should be taken as something more than merely accidental. It does not, however, preclude the possibility of their being taken from a common source, or being standardised definitions or enumerations common enough in such technical treatises.

The second group of passages, also betraying enough verbal similarity, is more interesting and important; because they certainly express contradictory views of their respective authors, if not actually meant as direct mutual criticism. In two of these passages, Bhāmaha and Dandin are, each in his turn, rejecting an illustration which is adduced by the other, but both citing the illustration in question in exactly identical phraseology. Thus, Bhāmaha cites and rejects (ii. 87), after the figure hetu, the illustration gato'stam arko bhātīndur yānti vāsāya paksinah, characterising it as bad poetry to which. he says, some writers give the name of vārtā. Dandin does not mention vārtā, but approvingly cites (ii. 244) the same half-verse under the figure hetu, pointedly remarking that the illustration under discussion is good. Similarly, the halfverse himāpahāmitra-dharair is given as an instance of the fault avācaka by Bhāmaha (i. 41), but Dandin gives the verse in full in a different context (iii. 120) as an example of a variety of pruhelikā; Bhāmaha apparently condemning it as faulty, while Dandin taking it as a piece of ingenious construction. Taking the examples in their contexts as quoted from a common source, the passages apparently indicate that Dandin is not in agreement with Bhāmaha (who condemns these) but expressly justifies their propriety.

A closer contact of views and similarity of expression are to be found in those passages in this group, which relate to

(1) the discussion of the comparative merits of the gaugiya and vaidarbha margas (Bh i. 31-35 and D i. 40 f) (2) the distinction between prose kathā and ākhyāyikā (Bh i. 25f and D i. 23f), and (3) the enumeration of the ten dosas (Bh iv. 1-2 and D iv. 2-4); and those who maintain Dandin's priority to Bhāmaha hold that in these cases the latter is undoubtedly criticising the former. In the first of these instances. Bhāmaha's remarks merely show that he is more or less indifferent to the literary value of Marga or Riti as modes of composition, and laughs at the distinction which some writers make between gauda and vaidarbha types, himself giving preference, if any, to the former. In his opinion, as he says in the next verse (i. 36), what is important in poetry is not Rīti but Vakrokti. It appears that the view which Bhāmaha is criticising was traditional or referred to as a matter of common controversy, as he himself says in this connexion: gatānugatika-nyāyān nānākhyeyam amedhasām. Jacobi points out that the Gauda Marga, long before Dandin, could never establish for itself a good reputation, and Bana had already condemned it as aksara-dambara (Harsa-carita i. 7). Dandin. on the other hand, attaches great importance to Riti in poetry which under the name marga, occupies a considerable part of his treatment; but he acknowledges, in spite of his own distinguishing of two such extreme types as gauda and vaidarbha, that there are other intermediate modes finely differentiated (i. 40), and that the types admitted by him are not capable of exact definition (i 101f), although he himself prefers the vaidarbha. It may also be added that Bhāmaha is unaware of the peculiar analysis of mārga given by Dandin with reference to the ten essential gunas, but he mentions casually (and not in connexion with Rīti) only three gunas which may be admitted in all good composition. The respective characterisation, again, of the two Rītis has hardly any point of contact, and Bhamaha's remarks, if supposed to be levelled against Dandin in particular, are certainly off the mark; for each of them approaches the

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subject from the standpoints of entirely different schools of opinion¹.

Similar remarks apply to the other two cases, in which one hardly finds any direct reference by Bhāmaha to Dandin. Dandin does not accept as characteristic or essential those marks of distinction between a Kathā and an Ākhyāyikā which Bhāmaha enumerates, and apparently quotes in this connexion the half-verse i. 29ab from Bhāmaha i. 27cd. The distinction. denied by Dandin, is admitted (along with Bhāmaha) by earlier as well as later writers; for Bana designates his Harsacarita as an ākhyāyikā and his Kādambarī as a kathā², and some such distinction is also implied by the Amara-kośa. With regard to the other passages which enumerate the Doşas, it appears that Bhāmaha, following the traditional recounting of ten orthodox Doşas (cf Bharata xvi. 84)3 mentions the same number of Dosas, but adds that pratijñā-hetu-drstānta-hīnatva is not desirable in poetry (iv. 2). At the same time, this eleventh defect is interesting to him from the standpoint of logical exposition, and he deals with it in v. 1f,4 apparently considering that defective logic is also to be looked upon generally as a notable flaw in a composition. Dandin enumerates the same ten Doşas (iv. 2-3) in exactly similar phraseology, and conservatively maintains the view (iv. 4) that the so-called eleventh fault is difficult to judge and unprofitable to discuss⁵.

- 1 This point will be discussed in detail below in vol. ü.
- 2 See Tarunavācaspati's remarks on Dandin i. 25.
- 3 The definitions, however, do not agree. See Jacobi op. cit, p. 222f.
- 4 For Bhāmaha's exposition of logic in relation to other philosophical writers see K. B. Pathak in ABORI, xii. pp. 372-87.
- 5 Emphasis is also put on some verbal resemblance between Bh i. 22 and D i. 21-22. In these passages, however, the standpoints of the two theorists are quite distinct, although they use somewhat similar phrases. Bhāmaha here expresses his disapproval of a disastrous ending, perhaps in conformity with a similar conventional prohibition in the drama. Daṇḍin, on the other hand, takes the ultimate triumph of the hero for granted, and does not trouble him-

From the above discussion, the conclusion is very probable that Dandin was familiar with the text of Bhāmaha whom, as a notable predecessor expressing contrary views, he could hardly ignore. On this point we have the almost unanimous testimony of Dandin's commentators, who expressly state that in most of these disputed passages Dandin controverts the earlier opinions of Bhāmaha. It will not be necessary, therefore, to enter here into the details of their respective theories, which not only indicate some fundamental and important differences, as one should expect in writers belonging to two different schools of opinion, but also the fact that Dandin, in dealing with most of the 'topics, has gone into greater details and finer distinctions, apparently betckening that in his age the study was more advanced and fraught with greater complexity than in that of Bhāmaha*.

self about the admittedly torbidden tragic ending. He appears to express the view that it is artistically more effective if the rival of the hero is set forth at the outset in all his glory and then his downfall is secured through the superior virtue of the hero himself. One does not also find any point in Bhāmaha ii. 37-38, which criticises the classification of the figure upamā into many subvarieties (like mindo, prasamso, and ācikhvāso, but which is taken by some to imply an attack on Dandin's elaborate subdivision of the same figure. The tri-piakāratvam cannot possibly refer to Dandin, who mentions not three but thirty-two subvarieties, while nindo, prasamso, etc. are also mentioned by Bharata.

- l c. g. Taruṇavācaspati on 1. 23-24, 29; ii. 235, 237, 358; iv. 4 etc., Harınātha on 1. 15 (cited in *ABod* 206b), Vādijanghāla on 1. 21.
- 2 See, for instance, their respective views on rīti, guna and dosa, on alaṃkāra (which last element Daṇḍin does not distinguish fundamentaily from guṇas, ii. 3.), on vakrokti (Bh ii 85 and D ii. 362), their respective order of treatment of alamkāras (which Bhāmaha deals with in successive groups, while Daṇḍin's thirty-five independent poetic figures are given as if they are well recognised): Daṇḍin's minute and fine differentiation of infinite sub-species of individual figures; their respective treatment of yamaka, upamā, utprekṣā, ananvaya and sasaṃdeha, upamā-rūpaka and utprekṣāvayava (which last four Daṇḍin does not accept as independent figures) etc. These points will be discussed in detail in the next volume.

If this conclusion of Bhāmaha's probable priority is accepted, then we get his date as the upper limit to that of Daṇḍin, the lower limit being, as already discussed, the same as that of Bhāmaha, namely the date of Udbhaṭa's contemporary, Vāmana. Daṇḍin, therefore, flourished probably in the first half of the 8th century.

(3)

There cannot be any doubt that Dandin, like Bhamaha, must have been indebted to his predecessors; and if he does not mention any one of them by name, he gives enough evidence of his having utilised their works, including that of Bhāmaha. Dandin, however, makes a general acknowledgment in i. 2, and refers to the opinions of "others" and of "learned men" (e.g. i. 9, 10; ii. 2, 7, 9, 54; iii. 106); while he makes no secret of his having "observed" and probably borrowed his illustrations from earlier poets, to whom reference² is made in i. 30,100; ii. 65, 223, 225, 363; iv 7, 32, 42, 57. The Hṛdayangama commentary on i. 2 mentions in particular two authors, named Kāśyapa and Vararuci (vi. 2; ii. 7), whose works Dandin is supposed to have utilised. Similarly in Vādijanghāla's Srutānupālinī commentary Kāsyapa, Brahmadatta and Nandisvāmin are spoken of as Dandin's predecessors. These may be mythical or traditional names; but Kāsyapa is also mentioned by another admirer of Dandin's who composed the Sinhalese rhetorical work already referred to. He is known to Abhinavagupta as a Muni who preceded Bharata, and his opinion on Ragas is cited in Abhinavabhāratī. Kallinātha on Samgīta-ratnākara (11, 2, 31) quotes

¹ The question whether our Dandin is identical with Dandin, author of Dusakumāru-carita, does not concern us here; on this see S. K. De, History of Sansk. Lit. Calcutta 1947, pp. 207-9. Of his personal history nothing is known, unless we hold that the two Dandins are identical and are prepared to accept the Avantisundari-kathā (ed. M. R. Kavi, Madras 1924) as a work of Dandin. See S. K. De, Aspects of Skt. Lit., Calcutta 1959, pp. 296-308.

² See this point discussed in Agashe op cit. pp. liii f.

three verses of Kāśyapa . and among old authorities on music he is mentioned by Nānyadeva (11th-12th century) who mentions also Bṛhat-Kāśyapa and Vṛddha-Kāśyapa. The Pañca-sāyaka, on the other hand, cites him (iv. 19) as an authority on Erotics, and the Agni-purāṇa as an authority on Metrics. One Kāśyapa is cited by Pāṇini in viii. 4. 67, and a grammarian Kāśyapa, as Aufrecht notes, is quoted by Mādhava.

Pischel¹ has already negatived the suggestions of Premachandra Tarkavagish², Peterson³ and Jacobi⁴ that Dandin in i. 12 refers by the word chando-viciti to a treatise of his own, so named, on the subject of prosody. The word, however as indicated by Dandin himself in the same verse, by his reference to it as sā vidyā, does not necessarily mean any particular treatise but the science of prosody in general; for which, in addition to the references given by Pischel, one need only cite Kautilya's Artha-śāstra (i. 3.1) and Apastamba Dharma-sūtra ii. 4. 8, where the word chando-viciti occurs: also Rājasekhara v. 6 and Hemacandra, Comm. p. 5. In iv. 49. again, Dandin refers to a kalā-pariccheda, which Peterson takes to be a clear reference to another work of Dandin's; but the reference is more likely to an additional or supplementary chapter to his Kāvyādarśa, as Tarunavācaspati suggests (p. 282). It is noteworthy that the Kāmadhenu commentary on Vāmana similarly quotes from a lost work or chapter of Bhāmaha's on the kalās.

Daṇḍin's Kāvyādarśa consists three Paricchedas or chapters (four in M. Rangacharya's ed.) and about 660 verses. The topics comprehended are: I. Definition and division of Kāvya; the two Mārgas (Vaidarbha and Gauḍa) and ten Guṇas

¹ Pref. to Srng. til. p. 14 f.

² On Dandin 1, 12

³ Introd. to Dašakumāra p. ix-x.

⁴ Ind Stud. xvii p. 447.

⁵ See P. V. Kane in IA, 1911, p. 177.

⁶ See above p. 57 footnote.

pertaining to them; the essential requirements of a good poet (Pratibhā, Śruta and Abhiyoga). II. Definition of Alamkāra, and enumeration and description of 35 Arthālamkāras viz. svabhāvokti, upamā, rūpaka, dīpaka, āvṛtti, ākṣepa, arthāntara-nyāsa, vyatireka, vidhāvanā, samāsokti, atiśayokti, utprekṣā, hetu, sūkṣma, leśa or lava, yathāsamkhya or krama, preyas, rasavat, ūrjasvi, paryāyokta, samāhita, udātta, apahnuti, śleṣa, viśeṣokti, tulyayogitā, virodha, aprastuta-praśaṃsā, vyājokti, nidarśanā, sahokti, parivṛtti, āśīḥ, saṃkīrṇa and bhāvika. III. Elaborate treatment of Śabdālamkāras, namely yamaka, citra-bandha and 16 varieties of prahelikā; ten Doṣas (in ch. iv in Rangacharya's ed.).

(4)

Commentators On Dandin

The commentaries on Dandin, as the following Bibliography will show, are numerous. Most of these are comparatively modern, excepting perhaps that of Tarunavācaspati as well as the anonymous commentary called *Hṛdayangama*, both printed in the Madras edition. With this exception, they are hardly useful for an historical or critical study of Dandin.

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commentary of Ratnaśrijñāna who follows the Tibetan version of the text, by Anantalal Thakur and U. Jha. Mithila Institute, Darbhangá 1957. (8) ed. D. T. Tatācharya with Hṛdayaṅgama, and comms. of Vādijaṅghāla and Taruṇavācaspati, Bombay(?) 1941. (10) ed. V. Krishnamachari, with the commentary of Vādijaṅgāla, Srinivasa Press, Tiruvadi 1936. Our references are to the Madras edition of M. Rangacharya unless otherwise indicated: this edition divides the work into four chapters instead of three.

- Commentaries. (1) by Taruṇavācaspati, Madras Cat. xii, 12834. Printed as noted above. It appears to be an old comm. But as it cites (on i. 40) Bhoja ii. 28, as well Daśarūpaka i. 8 (in comm. on i. 31), it cannot be placed very early. This commentary also refers (on i. 30) to a poet Hastimalla who may be the Jaina Hastimallasena who wrote dramas and poems. Keśava Bhaṭṭāraka, son of Taruṇavācaspati, was Guru of Mahārājādhirāja Rāmanātha (the Hoysala Vīra Rāmanātha) who came to the throne in 1255 AD. See V. Raghavaṇ in JOR, xiii, at p. 305. So Taruṇavācaspati's date would be the end of the 12th and first half of the 13th century. In the colophon to some MSS he is called 'Sādhu'.
 - (2) Hṛdayaṅgama by an anonymous author. Madras Cat. 12833. Printed as above (ch. i-ii only). The comments on Daṇḍin ii. 284, 286, 288, 289-91 are quoted verbatim but anonymously by Bhoja in his Śṛṅgāra-prakāśa (ch. xi).
 - (3) Mārjanā by Harinātha, son of Viśvadhara and younger brother of Keśava. ABod 206b; Peterson vi p 30 (extract). MS in BORI (Catalogue xii, no. 124) copied in Saṃvat 1746=1690 AD. Hārinātha also wrote a comm. on Bhoja's Sarasvatī-k.º He must be later than Keśava Miśra whose work on Alaṃkāra he cites.
 - (4) Muktāvalī by Narasimha-sūri, son of Gadādhara and grandson of Kṛṣṇa-śarman. Mitra 2394 (Aufrecht i. 102b).

- (5) Candrikā by Triśaranatatabhīma. Mentioned in Hall's Index, p. 63.
- (6) Rasika-rañjanī by Visvanātha. Oppert 4112 (Aufrecht i. 103a).
- (7) Vivṛti or Kāvya-tattva-viveka-kaumudī by Kṛṣṇa-kṛṇkara Tarkavāgīśa Bhaṭṭācārya of Gopālapura in Bengal. IOC pt. iii, no. 1128/1497, p. 321.
- (8) Śrutānupālinī by Vādijanghāla (or °ghanghala). Printed as noted above. Stein pp. 61. xxviii, extract no. 1179. The Report of Peripatetic Party of Madras MSS Lib. 1917-19 mentions an acquisition of this comm. for the Library. MS in BORI, Cat. xii, no, 125. The comm. mentions Kāśyapa, Brahmadatta and Nandisvāmin as predecessors of Dandin.
 - (9) Comm. by Bhagiratha. Aufrecht i. 102b.
- (10) Comm. by Vijayānanda. MS in BORI. Cat. xii, no. 123 (incomplete).
- (11) Vaimalya-vidhāyinī by Mallinātha, son of Jagannātha. Aufrecht ii. 20a. This is perhaps the same Mallinātha as is referred to by Viśveśvara in Alamkauso, p. 69 as a commentator on Kāvyādarśa; and he should be distinguised from the better known Kolācala Mallinātha.
- (12) Comm. (incomplete) by Tribhuvanacandra, otherwise called Vādisimha, a Jaina. HPS iii, no. 57.
- (13) Comm. by Yāmuna or Yāmuneya. MSS in BORI, Cat. xii, no. 126. It is probably a South Indian work which divides the Kāwvādarśa into 4 chapters, as in Madras ed. of Rangacharya.
- (14) Ratnaśrī by Ratnaśrījāna. Ed. as descibed above. The author was a Ceylonese monk who wrote under the patronage of some Rāṣṭrakuṭa king, named Tuṅga, under the overlordsip of Rājyapāla of Gauḍa and Magadha (c. 908 A. D.). Authors quoted, besides Aśvaghoṣa and Kālidāsa, are Māṭrceṭa, Āryaśūra, Kohala, Rāma-śarman, Medhāvirudra, Kambala, Harivṛddha, Bhāmaha, Bhar-

trmentha, Gunadhya, Candra vyakarana, Mallanaga, and Dharmakirti.

(15) Anoymous Comms. in Mitra 297, Oppert 7903; SCC vii 21. A comm. by Dharmavācaspati in Oppert 2581 is probably a mistake for Taruņavācaspati. Regnaud (Rhetorique, p. 367 fn) also mentions a commentary by Vācaspati and refers to Taylor ii 501; which work probably refers also to this commentary.

UDBHATA

(1)

Udbhaṭa, who wrote a commentary named Bhāmahavivaraṇa or "vivrti" on Bhāmaha, as well as utilised the
latter's work² in his Kāvyālaṇkāra-saṃgraha, certainly lived
before the final exposition of the Dhvani-theory by Ānandavardhana³ who, in the middle of the 9th century, actually
cites Bhaṭṭa Udbhaṭa twice at pp. 96, 108. Udbhaṭa's name
indicates that he was probably a Kashmirian. Kahlaṇa (iv.
495) mentions a certain Bhaṭṭa Udbhaṭa who was a sabhāpati
of king Jayāpīḍa of Kashmir (about 779-813 A. D); and
Bühler, to whom we owe the discovery of Udbhaṭa's work in
Kashmir, identifies him with the author of the Kāvyālaṃkārasaṃgraha (or "sāra-saṇgraha). Accepting this identification,

- 1 The Bhāmaha-vivaraņa is frequently mentioned and cited by later writers; e.g. Abhinavagupta in his Locuna (p. 10, 40, 134, 159), Hemachandra (Comm. p. 17, 110), Māṇikyacandra (Saṃketa, ed. Mysore p. 289), Samudrabandha (on Alam. sarvasva, p. 89). Pratīhārendurāja (p. 13) etc.
- 2 Udbhaṭa seems to have taken over almost verbatim from Bhāmaha the definitions of ākṣeṛa, vibhāvanā, atišayokti, kathāsam-khya, utprekṣā paryāvokta, apahnuti, virodha, aprastuta-prašaṃsā sahokti, sasamdeha and ananvaya. The poetic figures are enumerated almost in the same order as that of Bhāmaha. But Udbhaṭa omits a few Alaṃkāras defined by Bhāmaha (e. g. vamaka, upamā-rūpaka, utprekṣāvayava) and adds a few not defined by the latter (e. g. punar-uktavad-ābhūsa, kā yalinga, drṣṭānta and saṃkara).
- 3 Cf the opinions of Pratīhāi endurāja (p. 79), Ruyyaka and Jayaratha (p. 3) and Jagannātha (pp. 414-5).
 - 4 Kashmir Rep p. 65.

we should, however, place the most flourishing period of Udbhaṭa's activity, as Jacobi points out, in the first part of Jayāpīḍa's rather long reign; because this sovereign in the latter part of his career appears to have alienated the Brahmans by his oppression of the people. Udbhaṭa, therefore, should be assigned to the end of the 8th century, and he may have lived into the beginning of the 9th.

Besides the lost Bhāmaha-vivaraṇa. Pratīhārendurāja tells us (p. 15) that Udbhaṭa wrote a poem, called Kumāra-saṃbhava, from which are taken most of the illustrations in the text.

We have already mentioned above that Udbhaţa probably wrote also a commentary on Bharata's Nāţya-śāstra, but it is no longer available. The followers of Udbhaṭa or the Audbhaṭas are mentioned by Abhinavagupta in his commentary on Bharata

Udbhaṭa's Kāvyālaṃkāra-saṃgraha consists of six chapters (called Vargas), contains 75 Kārikās in Anuştubh with 95 illustrations, and deals with 41 Alaṃkāras. Some verses are assigned to Udbhaṭa in the Subhāṣirāvalī 498, 1463, 3453, of which no. 498 is a well known gnomic stanza found also in such collections as the Cāṇakya-śataka. Although closely following Bhāmaha in the treatment of Alaṃkāras, Udbhaṭa has certain views peculiar to himself, which are either absent in Bhāmaha or in which he differs from his predecessor. For instance, Bhāmaha speaks of three kinds of Śleṣa while Udbhaṭa mentions two kinds, and the basis of classification is different; Udbhaṭa's three Vṛttis, on which the classification of Anuprāsa proceeds, are absent in Bhāmaha

(2)

MUKULA AND PRATĪHĀRENDURĀJA

Pratīhārendurāja, Udbhaṭa's commentator, was, as he himself tells us, a native of Konkana and a pupil of Mukula.

1 For more instances see P. V. Kane, HSP, pp. 127-28.—For a résumé of the topics covered by Udbhaţa's work see vol ii ch. ii(2).

Mukula is known to us as the author of Abhidhā-vṛttımātrkā, a work on the grammatico-rhetorical question of Abhidhā and Laksana, consisting of 15 Kārikās with Vrtti. From the last verse of this work we learn that the author's father was Bhatta Kallata who lived, according to Kahlana v. 66, in the reign of Avantivarman of Kashmir (855-884 A.D) and was, therefore, a contemporary of Ratnakara and Anandavardhana. Accepting Kahlana's statement, Mukula should be placed roughly towards the end of the 9th century and the beginning of the 10th. His pupil Pratiharenduraja. therefore, belongs approximately to the first half of the 10th century.² In his commentary on Udbhata ralled ^oLaghu vrtti. Pratīhārendu quotes from Bhāmaha. Dandin. Vámana, the Dhvanyāloka and Rudraţa, actually naming most of them and appears to be fairly familiar with the Dhvani-theory, as explained by Anandavardhana, to which, however, he does not subscribe.

Peterson appears to suggest' the identification of Pratī-hārendurāja with Bhattendurāja, whom Abhinavagupta refers to as asmad-upādhyāya in his Locana (pp. 25, 43, 116, 160, 207, 223) as well as in his commentary on Bharata, where this teacher is quoted sometimes simply as upādhyāya. At the commencement and close of his Locana, Abhinavagupta indicates his immense indebtedness to this teacher, and in one place (p. 160) we find in his praise the somewhat grandiloquent epithet vidvat-kavi-sahrdaya-cakravartin; which together with the fact that Abhinava also indicates that he learnt Kāvya from Bhattendurāja will go to support the conjecture

- 1 Buhler op. cit. pp. 66, 78
- 2 Cf. Pischel, Pref. to \$rngtil. p. 12.
- 3 Introd. to Subhāṣ°, p. 11, but contra in Aufrecht i 59a. Banhatti's more recent advocacy of identity is hardly based on substantial and convincing reasons. The only instance where the two Indurāṣas are confused or identified occurs in Samudrabandha p. 132; but this is no strong evidence.
- 4 ed. Kāvyamāla p. 1; and ch. 1v in JDL. 1922, p. 42 (reprinted in S. K. De, Some Problems p. 245 f).

that this preceptor was apparently well versed in both the theory and practice of poetry. Although chronology does not stand in the way, there are several reasons which might induce one to distinguish the two Indurajas. From Abhinava's commentary on the Bhagavad-gîtā1, we leasn that Bhattendu was son of Śribhūtirāja and grandson of Saucuka of the Kātyāyana gotra; but of Pratīhārendu's genealogy or personal history we know nothing, except that he was a Kaunkana and a pupil of Mukula² Bhattendu appears chiefly as a poet who wrote, as Abhinava's quotations show, in Sanskrit and Prakrit, and whose verses apparently supplied a ready source of apt poetic illustrations to his pupil's works. probably inspired by himself. If some of his opinions on Rasa and allied topics are quoted by Abhinava in his commentary on Bharata, they bear no kinship to Pratiharendu's views, as expressed in the latter's commentary on Udbhata. Although the prefixes Bhatta and Pratihara, being mere honorific titles, need not make any serious difference. Abhinava's citation of his teacher always as Bhattendurāja (and never as Pratihārendurāja) is somewhat remarkable; and in view of the fact that these two Indurajas were probably contemporaries, might this not indicate that Abhinava meant to imply a difference? The two writers are never confused even in later anthologies, for the poet it always designated Indurajas or Bhattenduraja. The conjecture, therefore, is not unlikely that Abhinava's teacher may have been the poet Bhattendurāja, who is quoted under this designation in

- 1 Buhler, op. cit. pp. 80 and exixu-vin.
- 2 It is curious that Abhinava, who takes care to refer to most of his teachers and "teacher of teachers" (parama-guru) should have omitted a reference to Mukula, whose work, if he was a parama-guru, should have been important to him, masmuch as it dealt with the quasi-rhetorical question of the functions of word and its sense.
- 3 Two verses of Induraja are cited at 287 and 306 (Kavi's ed. of Nāṭya-śāstra.)

Kşemendra's two works¹ as well as in the poetical anthologies² of Sārngadhara, Vallabhadeva and Jahlana. The commentator Pratīhārendurāja, on the other hand, was never known for his poetical pretensions, and was chiefly a writer on Poetics, who obviously belonged in his views to the older system of Udbhata and did not, as Abhinava did, believe in newly established doctrine of Dhvani, with which, however, he appears to be fully conversant. Referring to this new theory of Anandavardhana, Pratihārendu states in one place (p. 79) that what is known as Dhvani and taken to be "the soul" of Poetry by some thinkers is included implicitly by his author Udbhata in the treatment of some of the poetic figures under discussion, and therefore need not be separately considered. Bhattenduraja, on the other hand, appears to have favoured the new theory of Dhvani; for Abhinavagupta (Locana p. 2) tells us that this teacher of his explained to him the Mangalaśloka of Ananda's Vrtti in the light of the Dhvani-theory. The standpoints of Pratiharenduraja and Abhinava are so divergent that it is difficult to admit any spiritual relationship between the two; for the former was in no way an adherent of the Dhvani-theory, of which Abhinava was a recognised advocate.

(3)

RĀJĀNAKA TILAKA

Jayaratha, commenting on Ruyyaka's (or Rucaka's) Alamkāra-sarvas vā, refers in more than one place (ed. NSP 1893, pp. 15, 124, 205) to an Udbhata-viveka or Udbhata-

¹ Aucit, vic. under sl. 25, 31; Sui rtta-til^o under sl. 2, 24, 29, 30.

² Subhāṣitāvalī 918. The verse parārthe yah pīḍlām, ascribed to Indurāja in the Paddhati of Sārngadhara (1052), is quoted anonymously twice by Ānandavardhana (pp. 53, 218), a fact which, however, is not decisive; because Abhinava's commentary is silent as to the authorship of this verse, which occurs in Bhallaṭa-śataka 56 and is ascribed to another poet Yaśas in the Subhāṣ* 947. The Sadukti-karṇāmṛta attributes it to Vākpati, while Hemachandra (Comm. p. 257) and Jayaratha (p. 108) cite it anonymously.

vicāra by Rājānaka Tilaka, and states that Ruyyaka generally followed the views propounded by Tilaka. We know that a Rājānaka Tilaka was Ruyyaka's father. An anonymous commentary, entitled Vivrti, has been published in the Gaekwad's Series (see below under Bibliography), along with the text of Udbhata commented upon. It has been claimed by the editor of this publication that the Vivrti is identical with the Viveka or Vicara cited by Jayaratha. Attention was drawn to this commentary in a notice of its unique MS, existing in the Madras Govt Oriental MS Library by the present writer². as well as by Banhatti about the same time in his edition of Udbhata's work. Banhatti is rather cautious in his discussion of the question of identity, but he appears to be inclined to the view that the Vivrti is "evidently a distinct work from the Udbhata-viveka or -vicāra of Rājānaka Tilaka mentioned by Jayaratha." The editor of the Vivra, however, makes an elaborate attempt to demonstrate that the Vivrti cannot but be taken as the lost Viveka or Vicara of Tilaka. The evidence adduced is plausible indeed, but does not appear to be conclusive, and in the absence of more definite data it would be better to leave the question open. That this anonymous commentary is late is evidenced not only by its content but also by its citation of Rajasekhara's Viddhasalabhañjikā, as well as by its obvious appropriation of Mammata's standard work. Its value as an exegetical work cannot be placed too high.

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Udbhata

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¹ See a review by the present writer in JRAS, 1934, pp. 173-74.

^{2&}lt;sup>th</sup> In BSOS, iv, 1926, p. 279.

³ P. V. Kane (HSP p. 130) agrees with this view.

in the comm. are given mistakenly as Kārikā-verses); (3) ed. N. D. Banhatti, with the comm. of Pratīhārendūrāja, Bombay Skt. Series, Poona 1925. Our references are to Telang's edition, unless otherwise indicated.

Commentaries. (i) comm. by Pratīhārendurāja (as printed in the above editions), (ii) an anonymous commentary called Vivṛti (ascribed by the editor to Rājānaka Tilaka), ed. K. S. Ramaswamı Sastri. Gaekwad's Orient. Series 1931.

Mukula

Edition. By M. R. Telang, N. S. P., Bombay 1916.

Prasihārendurāja

Edition. With the text of Udbhata as described above.

Rājānaka Tilaka

See above under Commentaries.

VĀMANA

(1)

The upper limit to Vāmana's date is given by his own quotations (IV. 3.6 and i. 2.12) from the *Uttara-rāma-carita* (i.38) and *Mahāvīra-carita* (1.54) of Bhavabhūti, who is known to have flourished under the patronage of Yasovarman, king of Kanauj, in the first quarter of the 8th century¹. The lower

1 Rāja-tarang' iv. 144; Bhandarkar, pref. to Mālatī-mūdhava pp. xiiil; JBRAS xxiii, p 92f, S P Pandu in prei to Gaudavaho p. Ixviif, WZKM ii 332f. Reference is made in an argument on an illustrative passage in the Vrtti on iii. 2 2 to Subandhu (v., l. Vasubandhu) a minister of Candragupta. There has been a good deal of controversy over the identity of the king (bhūpati) who is said to have been a patron of Subandhu or Vasubandhu (see IA xl, 1911, p. 170f, 312; xli, 1912, p. 1, 15; IHQ i, p. 261) V. Raghavan (IHQ xix. 1943, pp. 70-72) has shewn that it is unnecessary to suppose that Vāmana refers to Subandhu, the well known author of the prose Kathā Vāsavadanā, Vāmana is peaking of a minister named Subandhu of Candragupta Maurya and Bindusāra—whose drama is cited by Abhinavagupta as Vāsavadanā Nātya-dhārā of Mahākavi

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limit is given by Rājašekhara's quotation (p. 14) from Vāmana i. 2 1-3, and his reference to the Vāmanīyas, which indicates that by end of the 9th century Vamana had a respectable number of followers going by his name. We learn also from Abhinavagupta (Locana, p. 37)1 that Vāmana was probably known, in the middle of the 9th century, to Anandavardhana who, however, never directly cites Vamana but seems to refer. in a manner not to be mistaken, to the latter's Riti theory in his Vetti on mi. 52. Like Bhamaha, Dandin and Udbhata, Vāmana probably lived before the Dhvani-theory, under Anandavardhana, came into prominence; and Pratiharendurāja, who professes a great reverence for Vāmana's views, expressly states (p. 81, while discussing alamkāra-dhvani, that in such cases Vāmana has employed the term vakrokti (iv. 3. 8)². We will not be wrong, therefore, if we fix the lower limit of Vāmana's date at the middle of the 9th century.

Subandhu, the term Nāţya-dharā signitying that the entire drama was, developed by a series of acts within acts.

- 1 The Lacana quotes from Vāmana at pp. 8. 10, 180, also Abhinai a-bhaiatī vol. 1. p. 288 (= Vomana i 3 30-31)—Vāmana quotes (iv. 3 10 ubhau yadi vyomni) from Māgha iii 8; also Vāmana v. 2. 9 = Magha i. 25. The words vo bhaiti-pindasya cited as ungrammatical in v. 2. 28 occurs in Pratipāā-vaugandharāyana iv 3, and the verse saracchasānka-gaurena cited in iv 3 25, occurs in Svapna-vāsavadatta iv. 7
- 2 Even supposing with Jacobi that Vāmana was contemporaneous with the ananymous Dhvanikāra, he cannot yet be shown to have been influenced in any way by the opinions of that school. The remarks of Ruyyaka (p. 7) and Jayaratha apparently support the trend of Pratīhārendurāja's opinion, and Jayaratha expressly says, with reference to these old writers, that they were unaware of the views of the Dhvanikāra (dhvanikāra-matam ebhir na arstan, p. 3), the Dhvanikāra being, in Jayaratha's opinion, the same as Ānandavardhana himself.
- 3 Cappeller's thesis propounded (in Vāmana's Stilregeln pp mi f; also pref. to his ed. pp. vm f) that Vāmana should be placed later than 1000 A.D. is disproved entirely by the quotations given above. Cf. Pischel, op cit. pp. 23 f. The mention of Kavirāja need not, as Pischel shows, of itself place Vāmana as late as 1000 A.D.

These considerations make it probable that Vāmana lived between the middle of the 8th and the middle of the 9th century, at about 800 A.D., and justify Bühler's identification, in deference to Kahlana iv 497 and "the tradition of Kashmirian Pandits", of our Vāmana with the Vāmana who was a minister of Jayāpīḍa of Kashmir (779-813 A.D.). This conclusion makes Udbhaṭa and Vāmana contemporaries and rivals; and the way in which Rājaśekhara, Hemacandra and Jayaratha refer to the two rival schools of Vāmanīyas and Audbhaṭas lends colour to such a supposition.

The Vṛtti (with illustration) on the Sūtras, called Kavipriyā, is composed, as its maṅgala-śloka indicates, by Vāmana
himself (cf iv. 3. 33). This is confirmed by the fact that later
writers ascribe both parts of the work to Vāmana¹. The
illustrations, as he himself informs us, are both svīya and
parakīya (iv. 3. 33). Vāmana's work, after the sūtra-style, is
divided into five Adhikaraṇas, each of which is divided again
into Adhyāyas. The first and fourth Adhikaraṇa have three
Adhyāyas, the rest two each, the total number of Adhyāyas
ing twelve. The subject-matter of the Adhikaraṇas is indicated by their naming: (i) Śārīra (ii) Dosa-darśana (iii)
Guṇa-vivecana (iv) Ālaṃkārika and (v) Prāyogika. The last
Adhyāya deals with Śabda-śuddhi or grammatical correctness
as an aspect of Prāyogika. The number of Alaṃkāras defined
and illustrated is thirty-six.

(2)

It has already been noted that Vāmana, in many respects, attempts to improve upon the system of Daṇḍin. Vāmana does not claim entire originality with regard to the illustrations he cites, and many of them may be traced to well known sources. The Rīti-theory itself, which Vāmana for the first time clearly and systematically enunciates, is probably older that Bhāmaha, who alludes to the classification of the gaudī

¹ Eg. Pratīhārendurāja (p. 17, 76, 81, 84); Locana (p. 37).

and vaidarbhī; and Vāmana himself cites from unknown expositors of the past, e.g. in his Vṛtti on I. 2. 11, 12-13; 3. 15. 29, 32; II. 1, 18; 2. 19; III. 1. 2. 9, 25; 2. 15; IV. 1, 7. etc. with atra lokāḥ or tathā cāhuḥ. While Daṇḍin supplies an important link between these unknown authors and Vāmana, we find the theory in its completely self-conscious form in the latter. But it appears to have languished after Ānanda-vardhana came into the field, in spite of the fact that Vāmana's influence apparently created a school known in later times as the Vāmanīya.

MAÑGALA

To this school probably belonged Mangala, who must have been a comparatively early writer, having been cited by Rajasekhara (pp. 11, 14, 16, 20). Mangala, we are told by Hemacandra (Comm. p. 195), agrees with Bharata in his definition of Ojas, and maintains with Vamana that Dandin is not right in emphasising it in the gaudī rīti, inasmuch as it is common to all the Rītis. This is all we hear about this writer, but it would indicate that in his views he leaned towards the system of Vamana who was probably his predecessor. A poet Mangala is quoted in the Sadukti-karnāmpta.

(3)

COMMENTATORS ON VAMANA

The existing commentaries on Vāmana are mostly late, and are therefore hardly acceptable to a critical and historical student. The Kāma-dhenu by the South Indian, Gopendra Tippa Bhūpāla, who was governor under Devarāya II (1423-46 A. D.) of the Vijayanagara dynasty, is a lucid exposition of the text, and its popularity is indicated by its frequent publication in India.

1 Cf Māṇikyacandra (Saṃketa, Mysore ed. p. 292).

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Commentaries. (1) Kāma-dhenu by Gopendra (or Govinda) Tippa (or Tirpurahara as he himself renders the name, introd. v. 8) Bhūpāla, about whom see above. He cites, among numerous other authors, Vidyādhara, Vidyānātha, Bhaṭṭa Gopāla (the commentator on Mammaṭa?), Ghaṇṭāpatha (apparently of Mallinātha) and Dharmadāsa Sūri's Vidagdhamukha-maṇḍana (on ii. 2. 21). He is thus later than the 14th century. He cites a work called Kavi-gajākuśa. Ed. with the text in Grantha-pradarśinī 1895; in the Benares Sansk. Series and in the Srivani-vilasa Press, etc. Our references are by pages to the Benares Ed. (2) Sāhitya-sarvasva by Maheśvara (IOC 566; ABod 207b). See Śrīvatsalānchana (under Commentators on Mammaṭa below). (3) A Commentary by Sahadeva quoted in the notes to the Gaekwad edition (Baroda) of Kāvya-mīmāṃsā p. 5.

RUDRATA AND RUDRABHATTA

(1)

The lower limit of Rudrața's date is furnished by the citation of Rudrața by name and reference to his kāku-vakrokti figure (ii. 16) by Rājaśekhara (p. 31) at the end of the

9th and beginning of the 10th century. This conclusion is supported by two considerations. Vallabhadeva who, as we shall presently see, flourished in the first half of the 10th century, quotes Rudrata by name in his commentary on Māgha (ed. Kashi Sansk. Series 1929, ii. 44) and mentions (on iv. 21) that he himself also composed a commentary on Rudrața's treatise on Alamkara, where he had discussed in detail the points in question; while in the same commentary Hultzsch notes numerous references, mostly anonymous, to Rudrata'. Again, Pratīhārendurāja, about the same time, quotes anonymously (pp 42, 49) Rudraţa's Kārikā-verses vii, 35 and xii, 4. as well as cites (p. 43) the illustrative stanza in Rudrata vii. 362. Abhinavagupta also quotes anonymously (Locana, p. 45) a Kārikā-verse of Rudrața's (vii. 38). This sets aside altogether the conjectural date, viz. the second half of the 11th century. assigned by Bühler3, as well as his revised date4, viz, the middle of the 10th century, which Peterson⁵ first put forward.

The upper limit cannot be so definitely settled; but it seems probable that Rudrata was younger than Bhāmaha. Daṇḍin and Vāmana, with regard to whose date his own time is to be settled. We need not go so far as to hold with Jacobisthat Rudrata derived his idea of vakrokti from Ratnākara's well known poem Vakrokti-pañcāśikā, and therefore was

¹ See Hultzsch's pref. to his edition of Megha-dūta with Vallabha's comm., London 1911. p. x-xi. These references are not all found in the printed text. This Vallabhadeva must be distinguished from the compiler of the Subhāş' who bears the same name.

² Cf Pischel in GgA, 1885, p. 764. Other quotations by Pratihärendurāja are: p 11=R viii. 40; p. 31=R viii. 89; p. 34=R viii. 95. Also Dhanika on 1v. 35=R xii. 4.

³ Kashmir Rep. p. 67.

⁴ IA xii. 30.

⁵ Peterson i (Detailed Report 1883) p. 14; also introd, to Subhās° p. 105. Their arguments are based on the date of Nami-sādhu's commentary on Rudrața, which is now known to be dated in 1069 A.D. See below on Nami-sādhu.

⁶ WZKM ii. 151 f.

later than Ratnākara, son of Amrtabhānu, who lived under Brhaspati and Avantivarman of Kashmir; but it is clear that if this new idea of vakrokti did not originate with Ratnākara or even with Rudrata, it was defined for the first time by the latter and illustrated by the former as a particular poetic figure. This verbal figure is described as resting on slesa (paronomasia) or $k\bar{a}ku$ (intonation) and is based on a deliberate misunderstanding of one's words for the purpose of making a clever retort (Rudrața ii. 14-17). Bhāmaha (ii. 85). on the other hand, had taken vakrokti, not as a particular poetic figure, but as a certain strikingness of expression which characterises all poetic figures; while Dandin had limited the range of vakrokti and made it a collective name for all poetic figures with the exception of svabhāvokti (ii. 362 and comm. thereon). Vāmana was the first to regard vakrokti as a special poetic figure (arthālumkāra), but he too used the expression in a more or less general sense to denote a particular mode of metaphorical expression based on laksanā or transferred sense (iv. 3. 8)1 From this it appears that (1) the term vakrokti travelled through all these writings from a very broad sense as the distinguishing characteristic of all poetic figures to the precise and narrow signification of a specific verbal poetic figure in Rudrata's definition; a definition which, however, unquestionably established itself in all later writers (except in Kuntaka who developed his idea directly from Bhamaha); (2) the order of development points apparently to the conclusion that Rudrata was propably later than Bhamaha, Dandin and Vamana; for in his time the broader and older connotation of vakrokti was out of date, and it came to be looked upon as a defined species of sabdālamkāra; and (3) its illustration by Ratnakara indicates its existence, independently of Rudrata, in the 9th century A. D. indications make it probable, apart from a detailed examination of Rudrata's other theories in relation to those of

Bhāmaha, Dandin and Vāmana, that the substance of Rudrata's teaching was probably later than that or these older writers. If this conclusion is accepted, then Rudrata should be placed after Vāmana, who is the latest member of this group; and this gives us the upper limit to his date.

It seems probable, that Rudraţa should be placed between the first quarter of the 9th century and its end; for he appears to be unknown to Anandavardhana. It will not be wrong if we accept the most plausible date assigned to him by Pischel¹, viz. the middle of the 9th century². The date makes him a contemporary of Anandavardhana, who never cites or refers to Rudraţa, as he. does to other well-known predecessors, and by whom this peculiar alamkārika connotation of vakrokti, if known, was not apparently recognised.

Rudrața's Kāvyālaṃkāra consists of 16 Adhyāyas and 734 Kārikās in Āryā metre (excepting the concluding verses) and comprehends almost all the topics of Poetics. This enumeration excludes 14 Kārikās after xii. 40 (dealing with eight kinds of Nāyikā) which are declared to be interpolated passages.

(2)

What is said here about Rudrața does not apply to Rudra or Rudrabhațța, although Pischel⁴, Weber⁵, Aufrecht⁶ and

- 1 Pref. to *Syng. til.* pp. 12, 26.
- 2 The suggestion of Jacobi that Rudraţa, whose name implies that he was a Kashmirian, was a contemporary of Samkaravarman of Kashmir, successor of Avantivarman, does not make any essential difference to our conclusion, although it is not certain that the example of vakroku given by Rudraţa in ii. 15 was at all prompted by Ratnakara, whose work contains similar railleries between firm and Gauri.
- 3 For summary of topics in Rudrața's work set vol. ii. ch. ii (3) below.
 - 4 Prcf. to Srng. til.; ZDMG xlii, 1888, pp. 296-304, 425.
 - 5 Ind. Stud. xvi.
- 6 ZDMG xxvii pp. 80-1, xxxvi p. 376; Cat. Bod. 209b; Cat. Cat. pp. 528b, 530a.

Bühler¹ take the two authors to be identical. The identity is declared doubtful by Peterson² and is not admitted by Durgaprasada² and Trivedi⁴. Finally, Jacobi has set at rest this controversy by showing elaborately, from an examination of their respective texts, that these two writers were in all probability different persons⁵,

From v. 12-14 of the Kāvyālunkāra of Rudraţa, as interpreted by Nami-sādhu, it appears that Rudraţa, also called Satānanda, was son of Bhaṭṭa Vāmukha and a follower of the Sāma-veda. Rudrabhaṭṭa's genealogy or personal history is unknown. But much has been made of the apparent similarity of the two names. The last verse of the Sṛṅgāra-tilaka, however, expressly gives the name of its author as Rudra, with which description most of the MSS agree?; while both Nami-sādhu and Vallabha call the author of the Kāvyā-laṃkāra by the name of Rudraṭa. The two authors belong, again, apparently to two different religious persuasions, Rudra being a worshipper of Siva, and Rudraṭa omitting a reference to this deity and mentioning instead Bhavānī and Murāri (besides the usual Gaṇeśa).

- 1 Kashmir Rep. p. 67.
- 2 Rep. i, p. 14; pref. to Subhās* pp. 104-5; but contra in Report ii, p. 19 footnote.
 - 3 Footnote to the ed. of Sring. til. p. 1.
 - 4 Notes to his ed. of Ekāvalī p. 3.
 - 5 WZKM ii, 1888, pp. 151-56; ZDMG xln pp. 425 f.
 - 6 The last verse, however, is not found in some MSS
- 7 With the curious exception of a Kashmirian MS in Sarada characters (Bühler's Kashmir Rep. no. 264) where the name in given as Rudrața. This unique testimony raises a legitimate suspicion, but it can be explained as a piece of not unnatural confusion made by a Kashmirian scribe, to whom the more famous name of Rudrața must have been more familiar. The same remark applies to the India office MS no. 1131 (Cat. vii, p. 321) and the South Indian MS in Madras Cat. xxii (1918) no. 12955, in which, however, the last verse gives the name as Rudra. This evidence, however, of colophons of MBS is not decisive; and it is well known that even later anthologies and writers of note make a similar confusion between the two authors.

Taking the works themselves. Rudrata's text of sixteen chapters covers a much larger ground than Rudra's much shorter work of three chapters, and presents a distinctly different outlook. Rudrața puts a greater emphasis on the kāvyālamkāras or poetic figures which supply, as Nami-sādhu points out, the name of the work itself, and which absorb its eleven chapters, leaving only five concluding chapters for a brief supplementary treatment of Rasa, the cognate topic of nāyaka-nāyikā and the general problems of poetry. The keystone of Rudra's system, on the other hand, is the idea of Rasa, having special reference to śrngāra (ch. i. and ii) with just a summary description of the other Rasas (ch. iii); and the chief value of his smaller text consists in his minute poetical treatment of the theme of śrngara-rasa and nayakanāyikā. It will appear, therefore, that while Rudrața's scope and method are more ambitiously theoretical and comprehensive, Rudrabhatta merely singles out a part of the whole subject, and not troubling himself about definitions and rules (which appear almost word for word as they are in Rudrata) gives us, in his apt and finely composed illustrative verses, a practical poetical manual on the subject of love and other sentiments. Jacobi, therefore, rightly remarks that "Rudrata appears as an original teacher of poetics, while Rudra, at his best an original poet, follows, as an expounder of his śāstra, the common herd."

With regard to the common topics, there is however, a general agreement, even to minute details, which has misled some scholars to attribute the two works to the same author. But beneath this general agreement, the two works reveal many points of difference which affect some of the fundamental conceptions of their respective authors. Taking, for instance, their treatment of Rasa, we find that while Rudra (i. 9) follows the general tradition, prevailing from Udbhata's time, of mentioning nine Rasas, Rudrata adds one more, viz. preyas (xii. 3), treating them in an order somewhat different from that followed by Rudra. Rudra enumerates and dis-

cusses at some length the bhavas (i. 10-19), which are summarily referred to by Rudrata in one verse only (xii. 4). A similar difference will be noted in the treatment of Vrttis. of which Rudra (i. 12) mentions, after Bharata (xx. 24f), the usual four (viz. kaiśikī, ārabhaţī, sāttvatī and bhāratī), originally taken as styles of dramatic composition but borrowed here apparently with a similar purpose from dramaturgy to poetry (cf Bharata loc. cit. 21). Rudrata, on the other hand. speaks (ii. 19f), after Udbhata, of five vrttis (viz. madhurā, praudhā, parusā, lalitā and bhadrā), which have nothing to do with the above four, but being comprised under alliteration (anuprāsa) refer primarily to suitable sound-adjustment by special arrangement of letters. With regard to the cognate topic of nāyaka-nāyikā, similar material discrepancies can be detected. While Rudra describes at some length the eight conventional avasthās (conditions or situations) of the nāyikā (i. 131-32), Rudraţa mentions only four (viz., abhisārikā, khanditā, svādhīna-patikā and prosita-patikā, xii. 41f), although to make up for this unwonted divergence there is in some MSS a long passage (between xii. 40 and 41), describing the usual eight conditions but irreconcilable to its context. and rightly stigmatised by Rudrata's editor as interpolated. The third class of heroine, again, viz., the courtezan (vesyā). appears to be favoured by Rudra (i. 120-30), while Rudrata dismisses her in two verses only (xii. 39-40) with an apparent note of condemnation. The tenfold state of a lover, beginning with desire and ending in death, is mentioned in passing by Rudrața (xiv. 4-5), but Rudra defines and illustrates each of these states in detail (ii. 6-30). While the trespasses in love. according to Rudra (ii. 53), depend on time (kāla), place (deša) and circumstances (prasanga), Rudrata thinks (xiv. 18) that a fourth condition, viz. the person concerned (pātra) should be added.

¹ Udbhata mentions only three virtis in connexion with anuprasa, viz. parusa, upanagarika and gramya (i. 4-7).

All these indications make it highly probable that Rudrata and Rudra were two different persons; but if this is so, how are we to explain the fact most of the verses in the Sringaratilaka are, but for their difference in metre (anuştubh and arya respectively) identical almost word for word with the corresponding verses in the Kavyalanikara? This point has been emphasised with some plausibility by the advocates of the identity of the two writers. But it should be noticed that this extraordinary verbal coincidence does not extend beyond those verses which give the rules and definitions; for the illustrative stanzas in the Srngara-tilaka, composed in a variety of metres, and forming a distinctive feature of this more poetical work, do not occur in the Kāvyālamkāra at all, It is not unusual to find similar treatment and terminology in technical treatises, abounding in standardised and conventional rules and definitions; but this is not enough to explain this extraordinary plagiarism tempered, it is true, by the presence of highly poetical and presumably original stanzas composed to illustrate these dry rules and definitions. Nor is this explanation, which is based on the supposed identity of the two writers, at all free from considerable doubt in view of the discrepancies noted above. The real explanation probably lies in the supposition that Rudra, apparently a later writer and chiefly a poet, and never pretending to be an original teacher of Poetics, found in these ready-made rules of Rudrata enough poetic possibilities, as well as an opportunity of displaying his own poetic powers. and proceeded forthwith to furnish the missing poetic illustrations.² As he did not apparently aspire to write an original

- 1 Some illustrative stanzas in the Srag. til. are taken from earlier works like the Amaru-sataka.
- 2 These chapters in Rudrata are purely expository, and are not fully illustrated as the preceding chapters are. One may be led to suppose that Rudrata himself composed the Spagara-tilaka to supply this deficiency, but this hypothesis does not sufficiently explain the divergence of views on the points noted above, which apparently indicates that the task of supplementing could not have been under-

thesis on the topics concerned, he did not trouble to alter the wording of the fixed canons and made only enough changes to suit the metre. While Rudrata is concerned directly with rules and prescriptions, Rudra is more practical in his object and treatment and intends his treatise on love apparently to serve as a psychologico-poetical guide to the gay science, furnishing it, as he does, with an elaborate analysis of the various moods and sentiments, which belong to the province of Erotics as well as Poetics¹.

taken by himself but by some other author, who held some views different from his own. It cannot be argued that chapters xii-xvi in question, which contain this deficiency, is a later addition by some other hand, on the ground that the closing verse of ch. xi reads like the end of the work itself; for a similar remark applies to the closing verses of chapters iii, iv and v.

1 The quotations from these two writers in later literature are unfortunately mostly anonymous, and do not materially help us in deciding this question. Among the very few cases where the author's name is cited along with his verses, Mammata, himself a Kashmirian, correctly refers (ad ix. 8a) the verse sphutam arthalamkaram to Rudrata (iv. 32). Samudrabandha (p. 6) and Hemacandra (p. 286 Comm.) refer rightly to Rudrata vii. 38-40 and vii. 27 respectively. Ruyyaka, while discussing Rudrata's views does not refer to his treatment of the Rasas at all. On the other hand, Baladeva Vidvābhūsana (p. 35) cites vāmatā durlabhatvam from Sringāra-til. (ii. 41), and correctly refers to the author as Rudra. Vallabhadeva in his anthology cites a number of verses from the $K\bar{a}vy\bar{a}lamk\bar{a}ra$ (421=ii. 17; 730=iii. 57; 1387=vi. 10: 1667 = ii. 30: 2047 = vii. 71: 2061 = vii. 33: 2234 = vii. 41: 2409 = vii. 32), and with two exceptions, gives the name of the author correctly as Rudrata. Similarly, Sārngadhara quotes eight verses from the Sringura-til. (3409=i.95; 3567=i.35; 3568=i.81; 3679=ii. 107;3578 = ii, 12: 3579 = ii, 50; 3675 = i, 51; 3754 = i, 30), and with two exceptions, again, refers them correctly to Rudra. The two exceptions of Sarngadhara (viz. 3773 and 3788) are wrongly attributed to Rudra; but Vallabhadeva quotes the very same verses (2234 and 1667), and correcting the mistake refers them rightly to Rudrate. Vallabhadeva's two exceptions (2247 and 3122) cannot be found in Rudrata to whom they are attributed, nor in Rudra. Jahlana attributes 21 verses to Rudra, of which 5 cannot be traced in his work. Of these, kim gauri mām occurs in Rudrata ii. 16; ambā sete'tra occurs

(3)

Rudrabhaţţa's date is uncertain; but as Hemacandra (p. 110) is the oldest writer to quote anonymously and criticise his mangala-verse (i. 1), we should place him between Rudraţa and Hemacandra, i.e. later than the 9th century but earlier, probably not much earlier, than the 12th. One verse, however, of Rudra, which cannot be traced in his Sṛṅgāra-tilaka, is quoted by Dhanika (iv. 60, ed. NSP 1917. p. 103); and if this Rudra is the same as our author, he should be placed before the enc of the 10th century.

(4)

COMMENTATORS ON RUDRATA

Vallabhadeva

Vallabhadeva's commentary on Rudraţālaṃkāra, referred to by himself in his commentary on Māgha (on iv. 21, vi. 28) is the earliest known commentary on Rudraţa and is still to be recovered. Vallabhadeva, who bore the surname of Paramāratha-cihna and who describes himself as son of Rājānaka Ānandadeva², is a well-known commentator on several standard poetical works, including those of Kālidāsa. Māgha, Mayūra and Ratnākara. He was apparently a Kashmirian and probably belonged to the first half of the 10th century; for his grandson Kayyaţa, son of Candrāditya, wrote a commentary on Ānandavardhana's Devī-sataka³ in

in Kavi. vacana- samac.; 505 = Subhā; 2247 (attributed to Rudraţa) = Sadukti-karṇā ii. 73 (attributed to Bhaţţa); ekākinī yad abalā is attributed wrongly to Rudra (as in the Paddhati 3773) but correctly assigned by Vallabhadeva to Rudraţa. Hemacandra quotes anonymously three verses from Rudra (i. 1=p. 110; i. 44=p. 394; i. 68=p. 305).

- 1 Dhanika also quotes anonymously from Rudrața (xii. 4) in his comm. on iv. 35, ed. N.S.P. Cf. Rudrabhaţţa i. 16.
- 2 From the closing verse of the comm. on Vakrokti-paticasika Anandadeva seems to have held some high appointment in Kashmir (colophon in Kavyamālā Gucchaka i, p. 114: Mitra x, no. 4064).
 - 3 See footnote to the ed. of Vakrokti-pañcāsikā in Kāvyamālā,

977-78 A. D., during the reign of Bhīmagupta of Kashmir (977-82 A. D.). Vallabha's preceptor was Prakāśavarşa who. Hultzsch thinks, is perhaps identical with the poet Prakāśavarşa, who is quoted in Subhāṣitāvalī and Śārṅgadhara-paddhati and who wrote a commentary on Bhāravi (Aufrecht i, 347). Our author must be distinguished from Vallabhadeva, the compiler of the anthology Subhāṣitāvalī, who is assigned by Aufrecht to the 16th century¹. From Hultzsch's list of Vallabha's quotations in his commentary on Māgha it is interesting to note that he cites Medhāvirudra, Bhāmaha, Udbhaṭa, Bhaṭṭi and the Viṣamabāṇa-līlā (apparently the Prakrit poem of Ānandavardhana).

Nami-sādhu

After Vallabhadeva, comes Nami (known as Nami-sādhu or Nami-paṇḍita), who is described as a Sveta-bhikṣu, indicating that he was a Svetāmbara Jaina. He describes himself as "the bee that sucked honey from the lotusfeet of Śrī-śālibhadra Sūri, the ornament of the gaccha of the city of Thārāpadra". We know that Jinabhadra 'Sūri, who was a pupil of Śālibhadra, wrote in Saṃvat 1204=1148 A. D. Sālibhadra is also referred to as Śrī-śāli-sūri in another work of Nami's called Ṣaḍāvaśyaka-ṭīkā, of which the date is given in the work itself as Saṃvat 1122=1065 A. D. In one of the concluding verses of his commentary on Rudraţa, Nami states that his commentary was composed in Saṃvat 1125=1069 A. D. Among writers on Poetics

Gucchaka i, pp. 101-2: and to ed. of the Devi-sataka in ibid, Gucchaka ix. p. 1. Cf. Hultzsch's pref. to Megha-dūta p. ix.

- 1 Bühler (Kunst Poesie p. 71) thinks that anthologist Vallabhadeva flourished between 1400 and 1350 A.D. The date now requires revision, for this anthology is quoted directly (with the names of the work and author) by Vandyaghatīya Sarvānanda in 1160 A.D. in his commentary on the Amara-kośa. See on this question S. K. De in JRAS, 1927, pp. 471-91 and BSOS, v, pt. i, p. 27f; v, pt. iii, p. 499f.
 - 2 Peterson i p. 68
 - 3 Peterson iii p. 13.
 - 4 pañca-vimiati-saṃyuktair ekādaia-samāiataih /vikramāt sama-

cited by Nami on Rudrața, we find the names of Bharata (p. 150, 156, 164), Medhāvirudra (pp. 2, 9, 145), Bhāmaha (p. 2, 116), Daṇḍin (pp. 2, 5, 169), Vāmana (pp. 11, 100, 116), Udbhaṭa (pp. 69, 82, 150) and the Arjuna-carita by Ānanda-vardhana. He also cites Tilaka-mañjarī (on xvi. 3) apparently of Dhanapāla, and one Jayadeva on prosody (on i. 18, 20). It is interesting to note that Nami quotes a Prakrit verse from one Hari (ii. 10), presumably a writer on Poetics, which mentions eight Vṛttıs instead of five of Rudraṭa.

Āśādhara

Peterson (ii, p. 85) brought to our notice another Jaina commentator on Rudrața, called Āśādhara, son of Sallakṣaṇa and Ratni. He was a Jaina teacher who lived till Saṃvat 1296= 1240 A.D. He should be distinguished from Āśādhara, son of Rāmajī Bhaṭṭa, a very late writer who composed a commentary on Appayya's Kuvalayānanda². In the Praśasti at the end of his Dharmāmṛta, Āśādhara's personal history is given. He belonged to the Vyāghreravāla family and was son of Sallakṣaṇa (or Lakṣaṇa) and Ratni. He was born in the fortress of Maṇḍalakara situated in the country round the Śākaṃbharī (Sambhar) Lake. He had by his wife Sarasvatī a son named Chāhaḍa, who was a favourite of Arjunavarman of

tikrantaih pravṛṣīdam samarthitam. The reading panca-viṃśati in this verse is doubted on the authority of Kielhorn's palm-leaf MS (Report, 1880-81, p. 63) which reads instead saṭ-saptati. This new reading will place Nami much later; but it is not supported by other MSS (e.g. Mitra 3102; Stein 61; Peterson i p. 16), as well as by the evidences adduced above from other sources. Kielhorn's reading is obviously incorrect in itself, because it makes the verse deficient in metre.

- 1 For this author see H. D. Velankar, Jayadaman, Bombay 1949. This Jayadeva and his Chandah-sāstra are also cited by Abhinavagupta in his comm. on Bharata. For his date (before 950 A.D.) see P. K. Gode in Poona Orientalist, pp. 33-38 (reprinted in his Studies in Indian Lit. Hist. 1, pp. 138-43).
- 2 The two are confused by Aufrecht i. 54b and, following him by Harichand Sastri p. 18; but Aufrecht expresses doubt about their identity.

Mālava (first quarter of the 13th century). After the invasion of Sāhibadīna, king of the Turuşkas (apparently Shāhābu-d-din Ghūr. Sultan of Delhi, who vanquished Pṛthurāja in 1193 A.D.), Āśādhara emigrated to Mālava and lived in Dhārā, where he learned the doctrines of Jaina faith and Jinendra-vyākaraṇa from Paṇḍita Mahāvīra, pupil of Dharasena. Āśādhara was reputed for his learning, being praised by the sage Udayasena, by the poet Vihlaṇa (sic) who is not the Kashmirian poet Bihłaṇa who lived about 1070-90 A.D., but minister of Vijayavarman king of the Vindhyas, and by the great yati Madanakīrti. He wrote more than 15 works, of which he gives a list, referring also to his commentary on Rudraṭa¹. His Triṣaṣṭi-smṛti-śāstra, which gives stories of 63 great men mentioned in the Jaina Purāṇas, was composed in 1236 A.D.²

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Nami-sādhu

Edition. Kāvyamālā 2, 1886, 1909, with the text (see above).

à śādhara

Mss. Aufrecht i 103a, 779a.

No MS of Vallabhadeva's commentary on Rudrața is known.

Rudrabhațța

Editions. Srāgāra-tilaka (1) by Pischel with an introd. Kiel 1886 (2) Kāvyamālā Gucchaka iii 1887, 1899. Our references are to Pischel's edition.

- 1 Peterson ii p. 85 and fn; Bhandarkar Rep. 1883-84, pp. 103-4.
- 2 Aufrecht i 54b. Winternitz (Geschichte, ii, p. 354, fn 5) assigns 1228-1244 A.D. as the date of Asadhara's literary activity. See also Kielhorn in El ix. 1908, p. 107f.

Commentary. Rasa-taranginī by Gopāla Bhaţţa, son of Harivaṃśa Bhaţţa Drāviḍa. See under Commentators on Mammaţa and Bhānudatta, below. Mentioned in Kāvyamālā ed. of the text (p. 111). He calls his author Rudra. If the Gopāla Bhaţţa, cited by Kumārasvāmin, be the same person, then he is earlier than the beginning of the 15th century. As Gopāla Bhaṭṭa, appears to be a South Indian writer, this conjecture is probable. Oppert's entry of Vana-taranginī (ii 2711, 1787) on Rudraṭa is apparently a mistake for this work, and the name Rudraṭa is a confusion for Rudra.

THE WRITER ON ALAMKĀRA IN THE VIŞŅU-DHARMOTTARA AND AGNI-PURĀNA

The Vişnu-dharmottara

The Visnu-dharmottara, counted as an Upapurana, is one of the later Puranic works of an encyclopaedic character which, in the course of its rapid treatment of multifarious subjects. devotes a few chapters to the topics of dancing (Nrtta), singing (Gīta) and music (Atodya), Poetics (Alamkāra), Dramaturgy (Nātya) and allied subjects. The work consists of three Kāndas of more than eight hundred chapters, the distribution and number of chapters in each Kanda being as follows: i-ch. 269; ii-ch. 183; iii-ch. 355. We are concerned here only with a few chapters of Kanda iii, which begins with what is called Citrasutra or the art of painting and proceeds to the allied topics of dancing, singing and music. Ch. 14-15 of this Kānda is devoted generally to some topics of Poetics. They name and define 17 kinds of poetic figures (alamkāras), which are: Anuprāsa. Yamaka (two types Samdaşta and Samudga distinguished). Rūpaka, Vyatireka, Ślesa, Utpreksa, Arthantara-nyasa, Upanyāsa (probably a kind of Vyājokti), Vibhāvanā, Atisayokti, Svabhāvokti (or according to some MSS Vārta), Yathā-samkh-

¹ For a detailed account of the content of this huge compilation, chapter by chapter, see R. C. Hazra, Studies in the Upapurāņas, i, Calcutta 1958, pp. 147-218.

ya, Viścsokti, Virodha, Nindā-stuti, Nidarsana and Ananvaya. In this list may be included Upamā which, however, is not explicitly mentioned or defined. In some of these verses reference is made to older authorities (purātana or purāna). Ch. 15 speaks of Kāvya and distinguishes it from Sāstra and Itihasa. The Mahakavya is then defined and characterised; it should contain nine Rasas, namely, Srngara, Hasya, Karuna, Raudra, Vīra, Bhayānaka, Bībhasta, Adbhuta and Sānta; there should be description of towns, countries etc; it should have a Nāyaka and Pratināyaka, but it should not describe death of the Nāyaka. Ch. 16 names, defines and classifies Prahelikās, Ch. 17-31, based mostly on Bharata's Nātya-śāstra, deal generally with dramaturgy. The Rūpakas are classified into 12 varieties, namely, Nataka, Natika, Prakarana, Prakarani, Utsrstikanka, Bhāna, Samavakāta, Ihamrga, Vyāyoga, Vithi, Dima and Prahasana. Eight types of Nayikas are distinguished, namely, Vāsaka-sajjā, Virahotkanthitā, Svādhīna-bhartrkā, Kalahāntaritā, Khanditā, Vipralabdhā, Prosita-bhartrkā and Abhisārikā. Ch. 18-19 deal with the different kinds of vocal (Gīta) and instrumental (Atodya) music, appropriate to the nine Rasas. Ch. 20-29 define Nātya, classify Nrtta, deal generally with the construction of the stage and its attendant religious rites and describe the four modes of Abhinaya, namely, Angika, Sattvika, Vacika and Aharya. Ch. 30 deals in 28 verses with the nine Rasas (including Santa) and their mode Ch. 31 describes 49 Bhāvas, including of delineation. Nirveda.

This brief résumé will give a rough idea of the topics included in the 28 chapters of the Upapurāṇa on Alaṃkāra, Nāṭya and allied subjects. But the section is essentially a rapid compilation and presents no definite system. The date of the Upapurāṇa, however, must be early. It is later certainly than Bharata's Nāṭya-śāstra which is used as a source, but it is earlier probably than Bhaṭṭi and the works of Bhāmaha and Daṇḍin, who enumerate a much larger number of poetic figures. Its internal evidence as a whole indicates that it cannot be

earlier than 400 A. D. and later than 500 A. D. It was composed either in Kashmir or in the northernmost part of the Panjab; but its date is too early for any reference, direct or indirect, to the Kashmirian Dhvani school.¹

The Agni-purāņa

The writer on Alamkara in the Agni-purana (chs. 336-346) attempts to treat the subject of Poetics in what may be described roughly as an eclectic fashion, but the account is much fuller and more systematic. It appears to follow at the same time a tradition which is distinct from and probably older than that of the Kashmirian school of Anandavardhana. although the work itself may not have been olo. The date of this apocryphal work, which is counted as one of eighteen Mahāpurānas is uncertain; but there is enough evidence to show that the Alamkara-section in it is chiefly a compilation by a writer, who was himself no great theorist but who wanted to collect together and present a workable epitome, conforming in essentials to the teachings of no particular system, yet gathering its material from all sources. This is apparent not only from its independent, if somewhat loosely ioined and uncritical treatment, but also from the presence of verses culled from Bharata, Bhāmaha, Dandin and probably other old unknown writers.3 Bharata is cited by name in Agni 339. 6, and a large part of its treatment of natya, nrtya, abhinaya and rasa follows Bharata's exposition, even to the literal

- 1 On the question of the date and provenance of the Upapurāṇa see R. C. Hazra, op cit. pp. 205-12.
- 2 The present Agni-rurāņa is said (IHQ, xii, pp. 683-89) to be a recast of an earlier and original Agni-p. which is the text described by the Matsya-p. and Skanda-p. and quoted by some Dharma-śāstra writers.
- 3 Thus, the verse abhidheyena sanı bandlıāt (Agni 344. 11-12). which is also cited anonymously by Mammaţa (Śabda-vyāpā° p. 8) and in the Kāma-dhenu on Vāmana iv. 3. 8, is attributed to one Bhartrmitra by Mukula (p. 17). The verse is not traceable in Bhartrhari. Bhartrmitra is cited also by Someśvara in his comm. on Mammaţa (p. 16).

borrowing and paraphrase of some of his well known verses. Thus. Agni 337. 11-12=Bharata xxii. 28-29; Agni 338. 12= Bharata vi. 36; Agni 338, 7-8=Bharata vi. 39; Agni 342. 15-17=Bharata xvii. 62-65. The definition of poetry (Agni 336, 6) and of poetic figure (Agni 341, 17) are copied literally from Dandin i. 10 and ii. 1 respectively. Cf also Agni 336. 13=Dandin i. 29=Bhāmaha i 27; Agni 336. 23, 25,26= Dandin i. 12, 15, 17=Bhāmaha i. 20. This will be enough to indicate not only the general nature of the work, but also the probability that these chapters of the Purana were compiled later than Dandin. Two verses again (apāre kāvya-samsāre and śrngārī cet kavih) occur in Agni 338. 10-11 and in the Dhyanyāloka of Ānandavardhana (p. 222), who flourished in the middle of the 9th century. As the authorship of one of these verses (śrngārī cet kayih) is ascribed expressly by Abhinavagupta to Anandavardhana himself (Abh. Bh. ed. GOS, i, p. 295) we can assume that the Agni borrowed this verse from the Dhyanyāloka. We cannot draw any definite inference from the Agni-purāna's omissson of a direct reference to Vāmana's teachings, but the definition of the term vakrokti bears some resemblance (341. 33) to Rudrata's novel characterisation of the same figure (ii. 14-16).3 On the other hand, this section of the Agni-purana (like the Alamkara section of the Visnu-dharmottara is not cited as an authority in the sphere of Poetics (if we except Bhoja's anonymous appropria-

¹ Some of the definitions of poetic ligures given by the Agni (E.g. Rūpaka, Utprekṣā, Viśeṣokti, Vibhāvanā, Ākṣepa, Aprastuta-praśainsā, Samāsokti and Paryāyokta) occur in almost identical language in Daṇḍin and Bhāmaha.

² As the tradition of opinion embodied in the Agni-purāna appears to have been followed and further developed by Bhoja in his Sarasvatī-k*, its date is presumably earlier than the 11th century. It is not suggested that Bhoja built up his elaborate system on the confused verses of the Agni, but the tradition of opinion is not essentially different. On a post-Bhoja date see IHQ x, pp. 767-79.

³ This point need not be emphasised; for this idea of rakrokti was prevalent, as Ratnākara's poem shows, in the 9th century.

tions) until we come to the time of Viśvanātha (14th century) who quotes Agni 336. 3-4 (=i. 2) and 337. 7. Whatever may be the date of the $Pur\bar{a}na$ as a whole, which is a kind of an ambitious cyclopaedia, incorporating sections on various departments of knowledge, we may, from what has been said, be justified in assigning the Alamkāra-section to a period later than the middle of the 9th century. The concept of dhvani is casually included in the figure $\bar{a}ksepa$, after the manner of most old authors, who flourished before that theory came into prominence.

With regard to the content of the Alamkāra-section, the arrangement of chapters and topics are as follows. Ch. 336 defines and classifies Kāvya. Ch. 337 deals with the topics of Dramaturgy (12 kinds of Rūpaka and Uparūpaka, 5 Arthaprakṛtis and 5 Saṃdhis). Ch. 338 considers the Rasas (with Sthāyi-bhāva, Vibhāva and Anubhāva), the types of Nāyaka-Nāyikā and their qualities. Ch. 339 speaks of four Rītis (Pāñcāli, Gaudī, Vaidarbhī and Laṭī) and four Vṛttis (Bhāratī, Sāttvati, Kaśikī and Ārabhaṭī). Ch. 340 is devoted to dancing. Ch. 341 is concerned with four kinds of Abhinaya (Śāttvika, Vācika, Āṅgika and Āhārya). Ch. 342 defines and classifies Śabdālaṃkāras, including seven varieties of Citra and sixteen kinds of Prahelikā. Ch. 343 deals with Arthālaṃkāras; Ch. 344 with what are called Śabdārthālaṃkāras (but it

¹ P V. Kane (Hist. of Dharma-sāstra i, pp. 170-73) gives c. 900 A.D. as the date of the Smrti-chapters; to the Alamkāra-section he assigns the same date. Also see IHQ xii. p. 689-90.

² The word dhvani is also used in the opening verse of this section (336 1; cf. Bhoja i. I); but apparently it alludes to the grammatical word, which reveals the sphota and which is indicated by the same term in the Vākyapadīva. Bhoja, makes the same omission; but of course he was more fully aware of the views of Anandavardhana and his followers. The Puiāna was probably aware of the Dhvanitheory as propounded by Anandavardhana (one of whose verses is appropriated), but it did not apparently subscribe to it

³ Cf Ruyvaka pp. 3f.

includes Akşepa, Samāsokti and Paryāyokta). Ch. 345-46 are devoted to Guņas and Doşas.

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CHAPTER IV

THE DHVANIKĀRA AND ĀNANDAVARDHANA

(1)

Anandavardhana has been assigned by Bühler and Jacobi to the middle of the ninth century, on the strength of Rajatarangini v. 34, which makes him one of the ornaments of the court of Avantivarman (855-84 A. D.) We are pretty certain of the time of Abhinavagupta, Anandavardhana's commentator; for, as he himself states, his Brhati Vrtti on the Isvarapratyabhijnā was written in 1015 A. D., while his Kramastotra was composed in 990-991 A.D. and his Bhairava-stotra or Isvara-stotra in 992-93. From Abhinavagupta's remarks at the end of his *Locana commentary on Uddyotas i and iii of the Dhvanyāloka, it appears that the study of this famous work was traditional in his family, and that his own commentary was composed as a rejoinder to another, called the Candrikā (p. 60), written by one of his predecessors in the same gotra¹; and four times in his "Locana (pp. 123, 174, 185, 215) he discusses or controverts the views of this earlier commentator, who is specifically referred to as the Candrikakāra at pp. 178 and 185.2 This should certainly allow some generations to lie between Anandavardhana and Abhinavagupta, and negative completely Pischel's contention that in three passages Abhinavagupta speaks of Anandavardhana as one of his teachers. These passages occur at pp. 37, 183, and 214 of the printed text, but a perusal of them with re-

¹ candrikā-kārais tu paţhitam....ity alam pūrva-vaṃsyaih saha vivādena babhunā, p. 185; ity alam nija-pūrvaja-sagotraih sākam vivādena, p. 123, etc.—The Candrikā-kāra is also cited by Someśvara (p. 55) in his comm. on Mammaţa.

² This Candrikā is also referred to in a punning verse at the beginning of Mahimabhaṭṭa's Vyakti-viveka (i. 5): dhvani-vartmany ati-gahane skhalitaṃ vānyāḥ pade pade sulabham/rabhasena yat pravṛṭṭā prakāsakaṃ candrikādy adrṣṭaiva, on which the commentator remarks: candrikā jyotsnā dhvani-vicāraṇa-grantho'pi (p. 1).

ference to their context will show that the honorific word guru, if it at all refers to Anandavardhana, must refer to him, not literally but figuratively, as paramparā-guru, whose work was held in esteem in his family'; or (which is more likely) the reference is to one or other of Abhinavagupta's teachers. such as Bhatta Tauta or Bhattenduraja, the former of whom is cited as asmad-upādhyāyāh or asmad-guravah very often in Abhinava's commentary on Bharata. Again, Kayyata states that he wrote his commentary on Anandavardhana's Deviśataka (ed. Kāvyamālā, Gucchaka ix) at about 977 A.D. so that by the end of the tenth century Anandavardhana was well enough established in fame to have two such learned commentators. Finally, Rajasekhara, who lived about the end of the 9th and the beginning of the 10th century, mentions and cites Anandavardhana by name in his Kāvya mīmāmsā (p. 16), and this should certainly clear up any doubt as to the authenticity of the date assigned by Kahlana and accepted by Buhler and Jacobi.

(2)

The celebrated work on Poetics known as *Dhvanyāloka* (also called *Kāvyāloka* or *Sahṛdayāloka*),² of which or a part of which Ānandavardhana is reputed to be the author, may be distinguished ino two parts, viz. (1) the Kārikā, consisting of verses and treating of *dhvani*, and (2) the Vṛtti, or exposition, generally in prose with illustrative verses, of the Kārikā. Now the question has been raised whether the Kārikā and the Vṛtti are of the same authorship or should be attributed to different authors.

¹ Jacobi, WZKM iv, pp 237-38.

² The work is called Kāvyāloka by Abhinava in the concluding verses of Uddyota in and iv. But in his comm. on Bharata (vii, vol. ii, p. 344; xvi. 5, vol. ii, pp. 299-300) he refers to his own comm. on the *Dhvanyāloka* as *Sahrdayāloka-locana*.—For a brief summary of the contents of the work see Kane in *HSP*, pp. 190-91.—On Dhvanyāloka and the text of the Dhvani-kārikās see S. P. Bhattacharya in *Proc. A-1.O.C.*, Patna 1933, pp. 613-22.

Abhinavagupta. who is followed in this respect by several later writers on Poetics, carefully distinguishes between the Kārikākāra and the Vṛttikāra, by directly opposing them, and also by using the term vrti-grantha in contradistinction to the $k\bar{a}rik\bar{a}^1$. In three of these passages (pp. 123, 130-1; ch. iv p. 29) Abhinavagupta expressly tries to reconcile the conflicting views expressed by the Kārikākāra and the Vṛttikāra.

Bühler² first drew attention to this point; and Jacobi³, relying on Abhinavagupta's testimony, put forward the suggestion that the Dhvanikāra, the supposed author of the Kārikā, was a different and older writer who should be distinguished from Anandavardhana, the author of the Vitti. In support of this, it has been pointed out that one does not find complete agreement of opinion between the two parts of the work, although the one is an exposition of the other. On the other hand, it seems that the system as given in its bare outline by the Kārikākāra in his concise verses has been considerably expanded, revised, and modified by the Vrttikara; and many problems not discussed or even hinted at by the former are elaborately treated of by the latter. In one place, for instance (p. 123), Abhinavagupta clearly points out that the classification of dhvani according to vastu, alamkāra, and rasādi is not expressly taught in any Kārikā; while in another place in ch. iv, Abhinavagupta states that the question as to the source of the endless variety of artha in poetry is mentioned by the Vrtti-

¹ pp. 1, 59-60, 71, 78, 85, 104, 123, 130-1; ch iv pp. 25, 29, 37, 38, 39, 40 in JDL., ix, 1923, Calcutta University. One of these passages from Locana on p. 123 would imply that the earlier commentator, the Candrikākara, probably made a similar distinction between the Kārikākāra and the Vrttikara. For these passages collected together, see S. K. De in the BSOS i, pt. 4, p. 3 (reprinted in S. K. De, Some Problems of Sanskrit Poetics, Calcutta 1959. pp. 80-90, where the whole question is discussed) and Harichand Sastriop, cit. pp. 86-87.

² Kashmir Rep. p. 65.

³ ZDMG, 1902, p. 405f.

kāra but not touched upon by the Kārikākāra. Indeed, it seems that Anandavardhana in his classical Vrtti attempted to build up a more or less complete system of Poetics upon the loosely joined ideas and materials supplied by the brief Kārikās; and his success was probably so marvellous that in course of time the Karikakara receded to the background. completely overshadowed by the more important figure of his formidable expounder; and people considered as the Dhvanikara not the author of the few memorial verses but the commentator Anandavardhana himself, who for the first time fixed the theory in its present form. The term "Dhyanikāra" itself came gradually to be used in the generic sense of "the creator of the Dhvani School", and therefore indiscriminately applied by later writers to Anandavardhana, who might not have been the founder of the system, but who came to receive that credit for having first victoriously introduced it in the struggle of the schools.

It is not surprising, therefore, that in the apocryphal verse ascribed to Rājasekhara in Jahlana, Anandavardhana is regarded as the founder of the dhvani-theory. Similarly, Samudrabandha (p. 4), passing in review the five schools of Poetics before Ruyyaka, mentions Anandavardhana as the founder of the fifth or last Dhvani School. This would also explain the two groups of apparently puzzling citations from the Dhvanyaloka met with in the works of later writers, in which they either confuse or identify. Anandavardhana with the Dhvanikāra. On the one hand, we have several Kārikās cited under the name of Anandavardhana, while on the other, several passages which occur in the Vitti are given under the name of the Dhvanikāra. This confusion was so complete in later writers that even in the latter part of the eleventh century Mahimabhatta, who professed to demolish the new theory by his fierce onslaught in the Vyakti-viveka, quotes from the Kārikā and the Vrtti indiscriminately under the generic appellation of the Dhvanikāra. In the same way Kşemendra, in the last quarter of the eleventh century, and Hemacandra. in the first quarter of the twelfth, make Anandavardhana responsible for Kārikās iii. 24 and i. 4 respectively, while still later writers like Jayaratha, Viśvanātha, Govinda and Kumārasvāmin 'gard Ānandavardhana himself as the Dhvanikāra, to whom the the Kārikā, as well as the Vṛtti, is indiscriminately attributed'. Mammata, generally a careful writer, distinguishes Anandavardhana from the writer of the Kārikās, whom he styles dhvanikāra or dhvanikṛt (pp. 213 and 214), but in one place (p. 445) he apparently falls into confusion and ascribes to the Dhvanikāra a verse which undoubtedly belongs to the Vṛtti. The question, however, of the differentiation of the Kārikākāra and Vṛttikāra cannot yet be taken as finally settled.

(3)

If the Dhvanikāra, however, is distinguished from Anandavardhana, the question naturally axises—who was this Dhvanikāra, and what date should be assigned to him? Abhinavagupta does not give us any information on this point. Jacobi, in the learned introduction to his translation of the *Dhvanyāloka*, poses the question very ably without, however, furnishing a precise solution. Sovani's hypothesis² that the name of the unknown Kārikākāra was Sahṛdaya, is hardly convincing; for his grounds for this presumption are that (1) one of the alternative names of the work itself is

¹ Kṣemendra, Aucitya-vicūra, p. 134 = Dhvanyāloku iii. 24; Hemacandra, Comm. p. 26 = Vallabhadeva, Subhāṣº 157 = Dhvanyāloka i. 4; Govinda Ṭhakkura, p. 16 = Dhvanyāloka p. 221; Viśvanātha, p. 114 = Dhvanyāloka, p. 130; Jayaratha, p. 119 = Dhvanyāloka p. 111; Kumārasvāmin, p. 64 = Dhvanyāloka iii. 3. Rājašekhara (p. 15) in his only quotation from Ānandavardhana really cites a Parikara-śloka of the Vṛtti at p. 137. Kuntaka, on the other hand, quoting the Prakrit verse tālā jūaṃti (Dhv. p. 62), which is Ānandavardhana's own (from his lost Viṣamabāṇa-lilā), appears to designate Ānandavardhana as the Dhvanikāra (see introd. to Vakrokti-jīvita, 2nd ed. p. xi).

² JRAS, 1910, pp. 164-67.

Sahrdayāloka and that (2) the use of the words sahrdaya and kavi-sahrdaya at the end of chapter iv of the Dhvanyāloka and in the beginning of Abhinavagupta's commentary is significantly corroborative. It is well known, however, that the word sahrdaya (lit a man with a heart) is used in innumerable places in Alaṃkāra literature, as in the verses in question, to designate a man of taste, a judge of literary beauty, a connoisseur of Rasa. Ānandavardhana himself discusses sahrdayatva at some length in his Vṛtti (p 160), and Abhinavagupta arrives at a concise definition of a sahrdaya thus (p. 11): yeṣāṃ kāvyānuśīlanābhyāsa-vaśad viśadībhūte mano-mukure varṇanīya-tanmayī-bhavana-yogyatā, te hṛdaya-saṃvādabhājaḥ sahrdayāḥ, a definition which became so much standardized that Hemacandra does not scruple to copy it literally (Comm. p. 3) 1

In the absence of materials it is very difficult to decide the question finally. Jacobi maintains, on the indication of a passage in Abhinava, that this unknown Dhyanikara was a contemporary of Manoratha, who is placed by Raja-tarangini (iv. 497 and 671) in the reign of Jayapida and his successor Lalitapida 1.e at the third quarter of the eighth and the first quarter of the ninth century (about 780-813 A D.); but there are difficulties which seriously stand in the way of our arriving at a definite decision on this point. While discussing the various theories which deny the existence of dhvani. Anandavardhana quotes a verse anonymously with the remark: tathā cānyena kṛta evātra ślokaḥ, upon which Abhinavagupta in his gloss remarks: tathā cānyena iti. grant akrt-samāna-kāla-bhāvinā manoratha-nāmnā kavinā. If we suppose that by granthakrt Abhinavagupta means Anandavardhana, then Manoratha, who is thus made a contemporary of the latter, lives in the middle or second part of the ninth century, i.e. somewhat

¹ Mammata begins his work (p. 10) with a reference to kavi and sahidaya, who are etymologically distinguished by Vidyādhara (p. 21); and both Mammata and Visvanātha declare that the sahidaya alone can have a true perception of Rasa in poetry.

later than the date assigned to him by Kahlana, presuming of course that both the Manorathas are identical persons. If, on the other hand, we suppose that granthakrt refers, as Jacobi conjectures, to the anonymous Dhvanikāra, we are confronted with the fresh difficulty that by the term granthakrt Abhinavagupta invariably means Anandavardhana (pp. 12, 37. 90, etc.). To remove this difficulty we must suppose either (1) that Kahlana is wrong, as Pischel argues, in assigning Manoratha to the reign of Jayapida and Lalitapida, (2) that the two Manorathas were not identical persons, or (3) that Abhinavagupta himself has confused the Kārikākāra with the Vrttikara in a manner not usual with him. As there are no definite means of deciding any one of these equally plausible propositions, the conjecture that the original Dhyanikāra was a contemporary of the Manoratha of Kahlana cannot be taken to have been definitely proved.1

(4)

It seems, on the other hand, that the Kārikās date back to an earlier time than the first quarter of the ninth century. in which the Dhvanikara is placed by Jacobi as a contemporary of Manoratha. The allusion to Manoratha and the apparent discrepancy in Kahlana's statement need not trouble us, nor need we challenge the otherwise trustworthy testimony of Abhinavagupta; for it is quite reasonable to suppose that the Manoratha under discussion is perhaps a poet who was, Abhinavagupta says, contemporaneous with Anandavardhana. and therefore quite a different person from the well known Manoratha of Kahlana. This is perhaps a much simpler explanation than straining the word granthakrt to mean the Kārikākāra in the face of Abhinavagupta's own distinct indication to the contrary; and in this way we are not affected in the least by Kahlana's Manoratha, with whom we have nothing to do. If, on the other hand, we place

1 T. R. Chintamani in JOR 11 (1928), pp. 44-47 tries to reconcile the discrepancies.

Dhvanikāra in the time of Kahlana's Manoratha, this would leave only a bare margin of one or two generations between the Kārikākāra and the Vrttikāra, which does not seem to be enough to make room for a period of scholastic exposition of the subject. But undoubted traces of such activity are preserved to us in the few memorial verses—parikara-ślokas (pp. 34, 130, 137, 147, 163), samgraha-ślokas (pp. 87, 223), samksepaślokas (pp. 44, 74, 243)—incorporated by Anandavardhana in his Vrtti which itself, therefore, is not likely to be the first of its kind. These Slokas are a sort of recapitulation-stanzas which are adduced by the Vrttikara from unknown sources, sometimes to explain the meaning of the Kārikās, but more often to amplify and supplement them. But at the same time we need not suppose a very long intervening period between the original dogmatic formulator of a theory and its first thoughtful expounder; for it is not necessary that a system should always require a long stretch of time in forming itself. The phenomenon is not unusual that if a literary or intellectual movement is already afoot and is, at it were, in a effervescent state, a few generations, or at most a century, are bring it to the inevitable culmination, or at least to some preliminary completion. If we suppose that a system of dhvani had been in existence at a very early period, we should expect to find. as we do find to a certain extent in the case of the Rasa-theory, its influence working, at least indirectly, on the earlier writers who prece-Anandavardhana, although this argument in itself does not carry with it a decisive force. It may be admitted, on the other hand, that the Dhvanikāra apparently shows himself conversant with some theories of rasa, rīti and alamkāra. But this neither proves nor disproves his own antiquity or that of his system, for there is no evidence to show that he was aware of the particular views of Bhāmaha, Dandin or Vāmana who championed these theories: nor are these writers to be taken, like the Dhvanikara himself, as the absolute founders of the systems they individually

represent. It only goes to establish that the theory, enunciated by the Dhvanikāra, might have existed side by side with these systems, as we find them in the extant works; for it could not have been much later, inasmuch as such a supposition would bring it too near the time of Anandavardhana himself. If the Dhvanikāra was contemporaneous with Daṇḍin or Vāmana, he may be placed at most a century earlier than his commentator in the first half of the 8th century.

(5)

If Anandavardhana gave the final authoritative shape to the dhyani-theory (only the details of which were worked out by Abhinavagupta and others), the anonymous Dhvanikāra was not its absolute creator. This is made clear by the first Kārikā, which tells us that the theory was already taught by earlier thinkers, and that it existed even at the time of the Dhvanikāra himself in various forms, handed down. Anandavardhana explains, in unbroken tradition (paramparayā yah samāmnātah), although it may not have been explained. as Abhinava adds in his gloss, in particular books (avicchinnena pravähena tair etad uktam, vināpi višista-pustakesu vivecanad ity abhiprayah, p. 3). This implies without doubt that the school existed from a very early time, but some unknown writer gathered together, summed up, and fixed the theory in a form which obtained considerable literary esteem for his work and the honoured but somewhat vague appellation of the Dhvanikara for himself. But his name and fame. in course of time, were eclipsed by those of his great Vrttikara who succeeded in establishing the theory for all time and to whom posterity began to ascribe, not altogether undeservedly, all the honours of his predecessor, so that one of the latest writers on Alamkara, Kumarasvamin (p. 288), glorifies him with the curious but significant epithet—Dhvanyācārya.

(6)

Very little is known of Anandavardhan's personal history. The colophon at the end of ch. iii of his work in the India

Office MS calls him nonopādhyāyātmaja, while the colophon to ch. iv gives the form jonopādhyāya. Of these two forms of the name of his father, the former seems to be correct, for referring to Anandavardhana's Devi-sataka, Hemacandra (Comm. p.225) cities its author as nona-sutah śrīmad-ānandavardhana-nāmā. Kayyata also, commenting on the last punning verse of the same work, refers to the author as the son of Nona, and mentions his two works, the Visamabanalīlā and Arjuna-carita, supposed to have been punningly alluded to in that verse. Both these works are cited in Anandavardhana's Vrtti, by Abhinavagupta (pp. 152, 176, 222), by Hemacandra (pp. 15, 213); and the first work appears to be a Prakrit poem. Anandavardhana himself refers to another work of his own at p. 233, on which Abhinava adds the gloss: granthantara iti viniscaya-tīkāyām dharmottamāyām yā vivṛtir amunā granthakrtā krtā This is apparently a work called Dharmottamā a commentary on the (Pramāṇa-) viniścaya of Dharmakirti. Abhinava in Locana iv (p. 31) refers to another work of Anandavardhana's called Tattvāloka, in which the latter is said to have discussed, among other things, the relation between kāvya-naya and śāstra-naya.

(7)

ABHINAVAGUPTA

Abhinavagupta's fame rests chiefly on his philosophical works on Kashmir Saivaism, but he appears also to have attained a considerable reputation in the realm of Poetics by his two remarkable commentaries on Bharata and on Anandavardhana, called respectively Abhinava-bhāratī and Kāvyālokalocana. Since the Locana is cited several times by name, it seems to have been written before the other commentary. He also cites in his Locana (p. 179, also p. 29) another commentary (vivaraṇa) of his own, now lost, on the Kāvya-kautuka by one of his teachers (asmad-upādhyāya) Bhaṭṭa Tauta. Nothing is

known of this Bhatta Tauta (also called Bhatta Tota); but it appears from its fourth introductory verse that Abhinava's commentary on Bharata was inspired by this teacher, who is cited there very frequently, just as his Locana was inspired by his other teacher Bhattendurāja. The exact scope and extent of Tauta's lost work is not known, but from Abhinavagupta's reference (pp. 187, 275, 310) it appears to have dealt with the theories of poetry in general and Rasa in particular, and explained some relevant passages from the Nātya-sāstra.

The Kāvya-kautuka is also referred to in the anonymous commentary on the Vyakti-viveka (p. 13); and Hemacandra (p. 316) quotes three verses from Bhatta Tauta in his text and reproduces (p. 59) in his commentary (appropriating the passage directly from Abinava on Bharata) an opinion of this teacher in connexion with the theory of Rasa. Kṣemendra in his Aucitya-vicāra (under śl. 35) attributes to Tauta a fragment of a verse which is given in full but anonymously by Hemacandra (p. 3)². Tauta is quoted also by Māṇikyacandra (at p. 5), by Śrīdhara and by Caṇḍīdāsa in their respective commentaries on Mammața.

Bhaṭṭa Tauta, together with Bhaṭṭendurāja, who is extravagantly praised in the Locana and whose relation to Abhinava we have already discussed, were probably his preceptors in Kāvya and Alaṃkāra. His references to his instructors in philosophy, like Siddhicela, Lakṣmaṇagupta and others, in his philosophical works possess no interest for us; but it may be noted that Abinava, in his Pratyabhijāā-vimarśinī Laghu-vṛṭti refers to Utpala as his parama-guru, the teacher

¹ See above under commentators on Bharata p 33, 101. Somes-vara (Comm. on Mammata p. 55) appears to have seen the work, as well as Abhinava's comm. on it (tac ca Bhatta-Totena Kārya kautuke, Abhinavaguptas ca tad-vittau nirņitam)

² This verse is ascribed, perhaps wrongly, to Mamaha (or Bhamaha?) in Kama-dhenu on Vamana, p 4. ed. Benares.

³ Cited in Locana, concluding verses.

of his teacher. This description of Utpala (see above p. 33) is repeated in his Locana (p. 30), where Abhinava discusses the term pratyabhijñā, used in the text (i. 8), and refers to what is said on this point by Utpala. This Utpala is well known in the history of Kashmir Saivaism as the author of the Iśvarapratyabhijnā (on whose Sūtra and Vrtti Abhinava wrote a Laghu Vrtti and a Brhatī Vrtti respectively), and is assigned by Bühler (op. cit p. 79) to the first half of the 10th century. From what Abhinava himself says in his numerous works on Kashnir Saivaism, we may indicate the line of spiritual succession (guru-paramparā) thus: Somānanda— Utpala—Lakşmanagupta—Abhinavagupta; Somānanda being probably a pupil of Vasugupta who is taken as the earliest founder of the Pratyabhijñā-śāstra. The guru-parampara in his study of the Tantras may be given thus: Sumatinatha— Somadeva—Śambhunātha—Abhinavagupta.

In the concluding portion of his Parātriṃśikā-vivaraṇa, Abhinava gives us an interesting personal and genealogical account, in which he tells us that he was son of Kāśmīraka Cukhala¹ and grandson of Varāhagupta, and had a brother named Manorathagupta. Abhinava's date is easily gathered from his relation to Utpala and Ānandavardhana, as well as from his own dating of some of his works. As we have mentioned above, his Krama-stotra was composed in 990-91 A. D. and his Bhairava- or Īśvara-stotra in 992-93 A.D, while his Bṛhatī Vṛtti on Utpala's Pratyabhijñā bears the date 1015 A.D. We can therefore, place him with certainty at the last quarter of the 10th and the first quarter of the 11th century².

¹ Bühler's MS has kāśmīraka viculaka (op. cit. p. clv) as well as *cukhala (p. clvii), the real name appears to have been Narasimhagupta, while his mother's name was Vimalā

² For the works of Abhinavagupta see K C. Pandey, Abhinavagupta, ChSS, Benarcs 1935 pp. 122-24; V. Raghavan in JOR, xiv pp. 318-20 and New Cat. Cat. i, pp. 224-26. On Writers quoted in Abhinavabhāratī see V. Raghavan in JOR vi pp. 153-62.

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 The author's name appears to be Dāśarathi (K. Kunjunni
 Raja, Contribution of Kerala, Madras 1958, p. 244). The
 author erroneously describes Bhattendurāja as the paramaguru of Abhinava. (3) Locana-kaumudī (on Uddyota i only)

by Udayottunga or Udaya-rāja from Kerala, publ. as above, Madras 1944 by Kappuswami Sastri. The author probably flourished in the second half of the 15th century (K. R. Pisharoti in Journal of the Ganganath Jha R. Institute, i, pp. 445 52). He wrote a Dūta-kāvya named Mayūra-saṃdeśa (ed. C. Kunhan Raja, Poona Orient. Series 1944); on which see K. Kunjunni Raja, op. cit, p. 228.

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CHAPTER V

FROM RĀJASEKHARA TO MAHIMABHATTA

RĀJASEKHARA

(1)

Rājašekhara, son of mahāmantrin Durduka or Duhika and Śīlāvatī¹ and great-grandson of the poet Akālajalada of the Yāyāvara family, is better known as a poet and dramatist than as a writer on Poetics. In his Bāla-rāmāyaņa i. 12, Rāja sekhara describes himself as the author of six works which must have existed even before this presumably early production of his.² It is not known whether his other three well known dramas belong to this period, but it appears that he probably composed more than six works. Hemacandra (Comm. p. 335) cites a work of Rajasekhara's, entitled Hara-vilasa, as an example of a poem which bears the name of its author (sva-nāmānktā), and quotes two verses from the same (Comm. pp. 334-335); from which Ujivaladatta also (ii. 28) gives a half-verse. In the Kavya-mimamsa, again (xvii p. 98), there is a reference to another work of his own, called Bhuvanakośa, for information on general geography. Ujjvaladatta (ii. 76) also quotes a line from Rajasekhara on the synonyms

- 1 Būla-rūmā° ad i. 7, 13; Būla-bhū ad i. 8; Viddha-śūla° ad i. 5. Rajašekhara calis himself a Kavırāja (Karpūra-mañj° i. 9; Viddha-śūla i. 5), which is, according to Kūv.mīm., the seventh, out of the ten stages, of poetic skill, one uegree higher than that of a mahūkavi.
- 2 In Karpūra-mañj' i 9 we are told that Rājašckhara began his career as a būla-kari, so called apparently from his two works Būla-rūmā' and Būla-bhū', while in this Prakrit drama, as well as in Viddha-śūla', he appears to have attimed the distinction of a Kavirūja.
- 3 Kane (HSP, p 207-8) believes that the Bhuvana-kośa was not a separate work but formed a part of the Kav. mim.

of Siva, which, if not occurring in the *Hara-vilāsa*, was probably taken from an unknown lexicon by him.

In the two anthologies of Vallabhadeva and Sārngadhara, we get a considerable number of verses ascribed to Rāja-śekhara. Of these, about 24 have been identified by Sten Konow in Rājaśekhara's four plays, but about 10 have not yet been traced in any of his known works, nor are they to be found in his Kāvya-mīmāṃsā. These untraced verses, including most of the memorial verses on poets, probably belong to another and younger Rājaśekhara.

There can be hardly any doubt that the Kāvya-mīmāṃsā should be ascribed to the dramatist Rājaśekhara, although it is not mentioned in these enumerations of Rājaśekhara's works. Our author gives his own name at the end of the first chapter of this work as yāyāvarīya Rājaśekhara, which agrees with the description given in the dramas and which makes later writers cite our author simply as yāyāvara. The opinions of the yāyāvara family, to which he belonged and in which

- 1 ed. Karpūra-mañj° pp 189-91.
- 2 This other Rājasekhara may or may not be the Jaina Rājasekhara, author of the *Prabandha-koša* (1348 AD). Rice 282 mentions a work called *Karpūra-rasa-mañjar*ī by Bālakavi, which apparent ly refers to Rājasekhara and his well known Prakrit drama, and not to any work on Alamkāra.
- 3 Aufrecht notes (ABod 135a) that the $K\bar{a}v$ $m\bar{i}m$. is cited by name by Samkara in his commentary on $Sakuntal\bar{a}$.
- 4 Būla-bhā° 1. 6 13; Viddha-sūla° i. 5; and Dhanapūla in Tilaka-mañī° ed. Kāvyamālā 85, 1903, śl. 33, and Mānikyacandra in Samketa comm. (ed. Mysore) p. 308 Also Hemacandra (p. 235) and Someśvara (ed. Jodhpur 1959, p 224, vāyāvarīya). Nārāyaṇa Dīkṣita on Viddha-śāla. i. 5 quotes Devala to show that yāyāvara means a kind of a householder (dvividho grhasthaḥ, yāyāvarah śālīnaś ca; see Mitāksarā on Yājña° i. 128) according to which vāyāvara means a particular class of Brahmans who lead a plain life and do not accept gifts etc Rājašekhara's wife came from Ksatriya family, but Anuloma marriage was permitted. See Kane, Hist of Dhamma-sāstra ii. pp. 641-42.

Tarala and Kavirāja, are cited frequently by him under the general designation yāyāvarīya, as well as under the individual names of these famous members of the family who are enumerated in the Bāla-rāmāyaṇa i. 13 and elsewhere. He also quotes with respect the views of his wife Avantisundarī of the Cāhuāna family (pp. 20, 46, 57), for whose pleasure, we know, he wrote his Karpūra-mañjarī (i. 11) and who seems to have been an accomplished authoress. The present work does not also omit a display the author's love for Prakrit dialects (pp. 34, 51) as well as his knowledge of geography (ch. xvii), of which he gives ample evidence in Act x of the Bāla-rāmāyaṇa. These and other details, on which we need not dwell any further, show that our Rājaśekhara is no other than the well known dramatist.

(2)

The published text of the Kāvya-mīmāmsā in eighteen chapters is apparently the first part of a projected extensive volume, of which a general summary or scheme is given in

- 1 An ornament of the country of the Cedis (cedi-maṇḍala-nan-dana, Jalhaṇa's Sūkti-muktāvali 88-89, p. 47). His patron Raṇavigraha is supposed by Bhandarkar (Report, 1887-91, p. xix) to have been the brother-in-law of Krsṇa II of the Rāṣṭrakūta dynasty, whose dates range from 875 to 911 A.D. Quoted also in Kāv. mīm. p. 75.
- 2 Rājašekhara's great-grandfather. This is not his real name but sobriquet derived from the expression in *Sr. Paddhati 777 = Sābhāṣ°* 843 (*dākṣiṇātya*). Famous for his poetical jems. some of which were plagiarised by Kādambarīrāma (Jahlaṇa *Sūkti-muktāvali**§3-84 (p. 46). Called *mahārāṣṭra-cūdāmaṇi* in *Bāla-rāmā*° i. 13; also see *Viddha-sāla*° i. 5.
- 3 Cited by Jahlana. Author of a work, called probably Suvarna-bandha.
- 4 pp 2, 3, 4, 10, 11, 13, 14, 16. 17, 20, 23, 26, 27, 30, 31, 35, 42, 43, 46, 50, 56, 58, 61, 62, 63, 78, 90. 91, 94, 99, 100.
- 5 See S. K. De, *Hist of Kāvya Lit*. ch. viii for Rājašekhara and his dramas.—In *Karp. m.* (on i. 6) he describes himself as *sarva-bhāsā-catura*. As a poet he claims that in his former births he was Valmīki, Mentha and Bhayabhūti!

the first chapter; this fact is also indicated by occasional remarks (like rītayas tisras tās tu purastāt p. 10 and tam aupaişadike vakṣyamaḥ p. 11) relating to topics to be dealt with in other succeeding parts. If the complete work, as projected, consisted of eighteen adhikaraṇas, we have now only one part surviving on the preliminary topic of kavirahasya alone. Keśava Miśra (pp. 32, 67) quotes three verses from an Alaṃkāra work by Rājaśekhara, which, if they belong to our author, were apparently taken, as their contents indicate, from some lost chapters on ubhayālaṃkārika and vainodika respectively.

The popularity of the Kāvya-mīmāṃsā with later writers is indicated by the extensive use made of it by Kṣemendra. Bhoja, Hemacandra and the younger Vāgbhaṭa. Hemacandra, for instance, literally copies long passages from chs. viii, ix, xiii-xviii; while Vāgbhaṭa borrows the same (as well as other) portions either directly from the same source or indirectly through Hemacandra.²

Rājasekhara himself is indebted to many old writers and cites directly the opinions of Medhāvirudra (p. 12), Udbhata and Audbhatas (pp. 22, 44), Vāmana and Vāmanīyas (pp. 14, 20), Rudraṭa (p. 31), Maṅgala (pp. 11, 14, 16, 20) and Ānanda (p 16), besides unnamed authors who are cited under the general designation ācārya. We also find the name of Āparājiti. One Aparajita is quoted in Subhāṣitāvalī 1024, and mentioned as a contemporary poet and author of Mṛgāṅka-lekhā-kathā in Karpūra-mañjarī, ad 1. 8. Rājasekhara also

- 1 Cf. introd. to Kav. mim. p. xvii-xviii.
- 2 A comparative table is given of these wholesale borrowings at the end of the notes in the Gaekwad ed. of the text
- 3 pp 3, 9, 13, 16, 20, 23, 30, 35, 50, 51, 56, 57, 58, 61, 62, 78, 94, 99.
- 4 One Aparājita-raksita is quoted in Kavīndra-vacana but as his name implies he was probably a Buddhist, and is possibly not identical with Rājasekhara's contemporary Āparajitī. V. Raghavan (JOR. vi. p. 170) thinks that this Āparajitī of Rājasekhara is none else than Lollața. See above p. 37, for 1.

mentions Surānanda, one of his ancestors, his wife Avantisundarī, Pālyakīrti (p. 46), Šyāmadeva (pp. 11, 13, 17) and Vākpatirāja (p. 62), all of whom, as the citations show, seem to have expressed some opinion on the topics under discussion.

(3)

The date of Rājaśekhara has been settled with some exactitude. We learn from his four extant plays that his ancestors lived in Mahārāṣṭra, and he himself spent much of his life in the midland as a teacher (upādhyāya) to a king named Mahendrapāla (otherwise known as Nirbhaya or Nibbhaya); Rājaśekhara was also patronised by his son and successor Mahīpāla. We also understand that one of his plays, the Bāla-bhārata, was performed at a place called Mahodaya, for which he shows a partiality also in his Kāvya-mīmāṃsā (p. 94). Fleet has shown that this Mahīpāla should be identified with the Mahīpāla of Asni inscription, dated 917 A. D. and he agrees with Pischel that Mahodaya is another name for Kānyakubja or Kanauj, with which place this king, as well as Mahendrapāla, is connected in the

¹ A Sanskrit verse of Avantisuudari is quoted in Kav. mīm. p 46; but no work of hers has come down to us. Hemacandra in his Desī-nāma-mālā quotes three Prakrit verses of Avantisundarī (i 81 and 1. 157).

² This Vākpatirāja (Bapai-rāa) is apparently the author of the Gaudavaho (middle of the 8th century; Kahlana iv., 144) and must be distinguished from Muñja-vākpatirāja, the 7th Paramāra king of Mālava, who reigned from 947 to 995 A.D. See below under Dhanañjaya.

³ Viddha-sāla° i. 6; Bāla-rāmā° i. 5; Bāla-bhāra° i. 7, 11; Kar-pūra-mañj° i. 5, 9.

⁴ Bāla-bhāra° i. 9.

⁵ IA xvi. 175-78.

⁶ GgA, 1883, pp. 1217f.

⁷ Cf. Bāla-rāmā° x ad 87, 89, 90. Rājasekhara's partiality for Mahodaya is also apparent in our text at pp. 8, 94.

Siyadoni inscription¹. It has also been shown by Aufrecht² and Pischel's that Mahendrapala, whose dates appear to be 903-07 A. D. from Kielhorn's summing up of the names of the four sovereigns of Kanauj as presented by the Siyadoni inscription, went also by the biruda of Nirbhara or Nirbhaya (Nibbhara or Nibbhaya in the Prakrit form), a fact of which Fleet seems to have been unaware. Rajasekhara appears to have become at some time of his life a protégé of Yuvarāja who has been identified with Yuvarāja I Kayūravarşa, the Kalacuri ruler of Tripuri (in the kingdom of Cedi), where the poet's relative Surananda had migrated From these evidences, it is clear that Rājasekhara must have flourished in the beginning of the 10th century, and probably also lived towards the end of the 9th. This is also supported by the fact that the latest writers quoted by Rajasekhara are the Kashmirian Ratnākara and Ānandavardhana, who belong to the middle or second half of the 9th century, while the earliest writer to mention Rajasekhara appears to be the Jaina Somadeva, whose Yaśastilaka is dated 960 A. D. About the same time Abhinavagupta (in his Comm. on Bharata) expressly mentions Karpūra-mañjarī as a Saţţaka, as well as Bāla-rāmāyaņa. In the Anthologies Rājasekhara is extensively quoted from the 12th century onward.6

- 1 El i. 170 f. 2 ZDMG xxvii (on Sārngadhara-Paddhati).
- 3 op. cit. p. 1221.
- 4 Fleet further shows (op. cit. p. 175f) that this Mahendrapāla must not be taken, as Peterson and Durgaprasada are inclined to take him, to be identical with the feudatory Mahendrapāla, whose inscription from Dighwa-Dubauli, dated 761-62 A.D., he has edited in 1A xv. 105, and who is distinct from the pupil of Rājašekhara.
- 5 For other details about Rājašekhara see Sten Konow's edition of Karpūra-mañj' (Harvard Orient. Series 4, 1901). 175f, which gives a full bibliography.—It is difficult to summarise the diverse and somewhat diffuse contents of the Kāvya-mīmāmsà, but a general résumé will be found below in vol. ii. ch. ix (3). A good summary will be found also in Kane, op. cit pp. 199-201.
- 6 See F. W. Thomas, introd. to Kavindra-vacana, where most of these citations are collected together.

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DHANAÑIAYA AND DHANIKA

(1)

The date of Dhananjaya may be taken as approximately settled at the last quarter of the 10th century A. D. The author informs us (iv. 80) that he was son of Visnu and that he flourished in the circle of distinguished literary men surrounding king Muñja, who himself seems to have been a man of taste and learning, as well as a patron of letters We should not, with Peterson', confound this Munia, better known as Muñja-vākpatirāja, with Vākpatirāja (or Bappai-rāa), the author of Gaudavaho, who lived in the first half of the 8th century under king Yasovarman of Kanauj and is referred to by Kahlana (iv. 144) and Rājašekhara. Our Muñja appears to be the seventh ruler of the Paramara dynasty of Malava, who, as his own inscriptions record², came to the throne in 974 A.D., succeeding his father Harsadeva Sīyaka, and reigned till about 995 A.D., when he was defeated, imprisoned and executed, as the Calukya inscriptions attests, by Calukya

¹ introd. to Subhā,4° p. 115.

² Arch. Survey Western Ind. 111. 100 = IA vi. 48-51; IA xiv. 159-60. See Bühler, Das Navasāhasānka-carita (transl. in IA xxxvi. pp. 149-172), 1888, p. 116f.

^{3 1}A xii. 270, xvi. 18, 23, xxi. 167-68; El ii. 212 f. All the references (regarding Muñja's date) are collected together in Haas's introd. to his ed. of the Daša-rūpaka (q. v.).

Tailapa II. Besides being known as Vākpatirāja¹. owing perhaps to the fact that he was himself a poet, he had several other birudas, such as Amoghavarṣa, Pṛthvī-vallabha, and Śrī-vallabha; and one of his inscriptions calls him Utpalarāja²; a fact, overlooked by the editors of the Kāvyamālā Series (Gucchaka i, p. 131), made them confound him with Utpala, the Śaiva philosopher of Kashmir, who was Abhinavagupta's parama-guru. This ruler is mentioned by Śaṃbhu³, as well as by Padmagupta⁴, as 'a friend of poets' (kavi-bāndhava or kavi-mitra); and Bhoja, his nephew and successor, appears to have inherited these traits of his character.

(2)

The Daśa-rūpaka of Dhanañjaya, in its treatment of Dramaturgy, is apparently based on the time-honoured authority of Bharata; but as Bharata's huge compendium, both from the practical as well as theoretical point of view, is discursive and cumbersome with its load of histrionic and other matters, Dhanañjaya attempts to sift the mass of details, and, limiting himself only to Dramaturgy, restates the general principles in the form of a practical, condensed and systematic manual. These features of the new contribution ap-

- 1 Dhanika quotes (on iv. 54-55) one of Muñja's verses twice, citing him in the first instance as Muñja and in the other case as Vākpatirāja-deva; while Dhanapala in his Tilaka-mañjarī uses both the
 names with respect to the same person. One of Muñja's descendants,
 Arjunavarman, who ruled in the beginning of the 13th century, reproduces one of Muñja's stanzas, with the remark that it was composed by one of his ancestors "Muñja, whose other name was Vākpatirāja" (Comm. on Amaru-ŝataka, ed. Kāvyamālā 1916, p. 23).
 This verse is attributed to Muñja also by Jahlana p. 199.
- 2 Kņemendra quotes verses from Muñja in his three works (Aucit. vic. under sl. 16; Kavi-kanţhā° under ii. 1; Suvrtta-til. under ii. 6) referring to him as Utpalarāja. See also Śārṅgadhara (126 vākpatirājasya; 1017 utpalarājasya), Vallabhadeva (3414 śrīhar*adevātmaja-vākpatirājasya), and Jahlaṇa pp. 63 and 199 (Śrī-muñjasya).
 - 3 Rajendra-karņa-pūra, sl 17, 36.
 - 4 Navasāhasānka° i. 7, 8; ii. 93.

parently obtained for it such reputation and currency that in course of time it seems to have superseded not only all other treatises on the subject but also the basic work of Bharata himself. Viśvanātha, for instance, refers now and then to Bharata and gives one or two (mostly conventional) quotations from Nāṭya-śāstra; but in the main he bases his treatment of dramaturgic topics on Dhanañjaya; while Vidyānātha admits, in the nāṭaka-prakaraṇa of his own work, his indebtedness to the latter, with the remark eśā prakriyā daśarūpokta-rīty anusāreṇa (p. 131).

The Daśa-rupaka, consisting of four chapters called Prakā-sas, deals almost entirely with the topics of dramaturgy, but the fourth and last Prakāśa contains a treatment of the theory of Rasa. The first Prakāśa distinguishes Nṛtya, defines the five Artha-prakṛtis and the Saṃdhis (with their Aṅgas), and concludes with definitions of Viṣkambhaka, Praveśaka and other dramatic devices. The second Prakāśa is devoted to the topic of Nāyaka and Nāyikā, their characteristics, their adjuncts, and considers the four dramatic Vṛttis and their Aṅgas. The third Prakāśa is concerned with the Prologue and other requisites of the ten kinds of Rūpaka. In the fourth Prakāśa we have an exposition of its peculiar theory of Rasa in which, not the relation of Vyaṅgya-vyañjaka but that of Bhāvya-bhāvaka is posited, after Bhaṭṭa Nāyaka, between Rasa and Kāvya.

(3)

Dhanika, also described as son of Viṣṇu, and author of the Avaloka commentary on Dhanañjaya's work, was probably one of Dhanañjaya's numerous illustrious contemporaries; for he may be assigned to the same period. Dhanika quotes from Padmagupta (also known as Parimala)¹, who wrote about 995 A.D., as well as from Muñja, and is quoted in his turn by Bhoja in his Sarasvatī-kanthābharaṇa in the first half of the

11th century. He is also described in one of the MSS¹ as holding the office of mahāsādhyapāla under king Utpalarāja, who is apparently our Munja-vakpati, the patron of Dhananjaya. The suggestion that the author and the commentator of Daśa-rūpaka are one and the same person, chiefly on the ground of the apparent similarity of names and identity of patronymic, as well as the inadvertant attribution of a verse of Dhananjaya's to Dhanika in some later works like the Sāhitya darpana (ad vi. 64a=Dasa-rūpaka iii, 29), need not be seriously considered. Jacobi, however, supports this suggestion³ by pointing out that there is no separate mangalācarana to the commentary. This hypothesis, however, cannot altogether get rid of the fact that Dhananjaya and Dhanika are indeed distinguished by some later writers. For instance, Vidyānātha, in his numerous references to the Daśa-rūpaka, cites the Kārikā-verses and never from the commentary,4 although his commentator, Kumārasvāmin, falls in one place⁵ (p. 29) into the error of attributing one of Dhanañjaya's

¹ Wilson, Select Specimens, 3rd ed. I, xx, xxi, endorsed by Hall p. 3 notes. It is curious to note that Dhanika (on iv. 23, ed. Parab) quotes nidrārdha° which occurs in the Caura-pañcasikā (ed. Solf no. 36) attributed to Bihlaṇa, but this anonymous quotation (which also occurs in Kuntaka) does not of itself place Dhanika later than the middle of the 11th century, the date of Bihlana; for the authencity of the verse is not beyond question, as it is attributed to Kalasaka in Subhāṣ° 1280 and Jahlaṇa p. 152, and Bihlaṇa's authorship is open to question. It is not safe, therefore, to base any choronological conclusion on this quotation. Haas has not noticed the verse at all.

² Haas (Pref. to ed. $Daśa-r\bar{u}paka$ xxxiv) is inaccurate in stating that there is in the commentary "a number of indications of a difference of authorship," and in support of this he cites ii. 20b-21a, iii. 32b, iv 43c. Jacobi elaborately shows (GgA, 1913, pp. 304f) that Haas has entirely misunderstood these passages.

³ Op cit. p. 303. Also Lévi in JA, 1886, p. 221.

⁴ p. 46. 101, 102, 104, 105, 114, 124, 131, 219, 221, 228.

⁵ In other passages the citation appears to be correct, pp. 47,

verses (ii. 23b) to Dhanika. It may also be urged that a mangala-verse to the Avaloka, occurring in one of the MSS, is rejected by Hall as spurious, chiefly on the ground that its style is "too pedestrian for so ornate a stylist as Dhanika" (p. 4 note). This 'pedestrian' stanza is apparently the same as that which occurs at the outset of Aufrecht's Bodlein MS, noticed by him in his Bod. Cat. 203a. On the other hand, the absence of the mangala-verse need not in itself be taken as decisive; for while Mammata has no separate mangalaverse to his Vrtti, we find them in Vamana and Ruyyaka. Śārngadhara in his anthology attributes to Dhanika several verses (3417 and 3973) which the latter gives as his own in his commentary (on iv. 3a and ii. 10a). If, therefore, we suppose, as it is more likely, that the author and the commentator were not identical, then Dhanika may be taken as a brother of Dhananjaya (a supposition which explains the apparent similarity of names and identity of patronymic). who collaborated in the production of the work by writing the commentary.

From the Avaloka we learn that its author composed poems in Sanskrit and in Prakrit, and also wrote a treatise, entitled Kāvya-nirṇaya (on iv. 35; seven verses quoted) which alluded to the Dhvanyāloka and apparently dealt with the general topics of Poetics.

For other less known commentaries on Daśa-rūpaka, see Bibliography given below.²

^{128, 130, 221, 233, 235, 259.} Ranganātha on Vikramor" (about 1656 A.D.; ed. N. S. P. 1914 p. 31) falls into the same mistake. Mallinātha on Kumāra" i. 4 and Sišu" vii. 11 quotes Daša-rūpaka correctly (ii 36b and ii 24a).

¹ This supposition does not militate against the passage (on iv. 33), referred to by Jacobi, in which the commentator intimately identifies himself with the author saying asmābluh .. niṣidnyate, meaning that the prohibition is made both by his author and himself.

² For later dramaturgic works, e.g. Vasantarājīva of Kumāragiri, see under Minor Writers below ch. x.

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Dhanañjaya

Editions. (1) By Fitz edward Hall (with Avaloka), Bibl. Indica 1861-65. (2) by Jivānanda (a mere reprint of the above) Calcutta 1897. (3) by K. P. Parab, NSP, Bombay 1897, 1917 (with Avaloka), 4th ed 1928.—Transl. into English, with transliterated text. introd. and notes, by G. C. O. Haas in Columbia Univ. Indo-Iranian Series, New York 1912 (not very reliable, but exhaustive introd. and index). Our references are to Hall's ed. On Haas's ed, see criticisms of Jacobi in GgA, 1913, p. 302f, and Barnett in JRAS, 1913, p. 190f.

Dhanika

Editions. Printed in Hall's and Parab's editions, with the text. Dhanika's Kāvya-nirṇaya is probably lost.

Other Commentaries on Dhananjaya and Dhanika

- (1) Comm. by Nṛsiṇhabhaṭṭa, MS in Govt. Orient MSS Library, Madras (see BSOS, iv. 1926, p. 280). It is really a Laghu-Ṭikā on Dhanika's Comm. (Dasarūpasya yā vyākhyā Dhanikena samāhitā tasya Bhaṭṭa-Nṛsiṇhena laghu-ṭīkā vidhīyate). It is interesting to note from this verse that Dhanika is mentioned as a commentator on Daśa-rūpaka, thus recording the tradition that the commentator Dhanika was different from Dhanañjaya, author of the Dasa-rūpaka. Bhaṭṭa Nṛsiṇha also commented or Bhoja's Sarasvatī-kaṇṭhūbharaṇa.
- (2) Tika by Devapāņi (cited by Ranganātha on Vikramorvasīya cd. N. S.P. 1904, pp. 6, 31; cf AFI 444 and ABod 135b), No MSS discovered. This is the author who is wrongly called Pāṇi by Wilson (Select Specimens) and Aufrecht. Being anterior to Ranganātha, his date should be earlier than 1656 A.D. Ranganātha also refers to a Sāhasānkīva-tīkā in the same context (p. 31).

- (3) "Paddhati by Kuravirāma (MS in Hultzch 554; only three pages) is not a commentary on the Daśa-rūpaka, as Hultzsch's entry would imply. It is an independent work on Dramaturgy consisting of 110 verses. See Madras Trm II, A, 820 (c), Kuravirāma is a modern but fertile South Indian commentator who lived at the court of Zemindars of Kārvetinagaram in North Arcot Dist. Ict, and wrote comms. also on two well known poems, Campūbharata of Anantabhaṭṭa and Viśvaguṇādarśa of Veňkaṭa. He mentions in his comm, on the last-named poem a commentary by himself on Appayya's Kuvalay", as well on Dhanañjaya. See Hultzsch i, p. xi.
- (4) Comm. by Bahurūpa Miśra, for an account of which see V. Raghavan in JOR, Madras, viii, pp. 321-34. As Bahurūpa quotes from Bhoja's Śṛṅgāra-prakāśa and Śāradātanaya's Bhāva-prakāśana he must be later than 1250 AD.

KUNTAKA

(1)

Kuntaka is better known in Alamkāra literature under the descriptive designation of the Vakrokti-jīvita-kāra¹ from the peculiar name of his work l'akrokti-jīvita, which itself is so called because of its central theory that vakrokti is the 'soul' or essence of poetry. The work had been known only through quotations and references until it was edited from two imperfect MSS by the present writer.

Kuntaka's date² is fixed approximately by his quotatior from the dramatist Rājašekhara, on the one hand, and by

¹ Ruyyaka, ed Kāvymalā p 8. with Jayaratha (also pp 12. 150 e¹ς) and Samudrabandha thereon (p. 4); Viśvanātha ed. Durgaprasa p. 14; Kāma-dhenu on Vāmana I. 1. Γ, ed. Benares p. 6, etc.

² This question has been dealt with in detail in the introd. to S K. De's editio princeps of the Vakrokti-jīvita, and is only riefly referred to here.

Mahimabhatta's citation of Kuntaka and his work, on the other. Mahimabhatta flourished, as we shall see, towards the end of the 11th century. We may, therefore, place Kuntaka between the middle of the 10th and the middle of the 11th. As this date falls in with the known dates of Abhinavagupta (whose latest date is 1015 A.D.), we may take Kuntaka as a contemporary of this commentator on Anandavardhana. Although Abhinava refers to various views about vakrokti held before his time, it is remarkable that he never alludes to the Vakrokti-jīvita-kāra who, as his title rājānaka indicates, was probably a Kashmirian, and whose work, if written before Abhinava's time, ought not to have been, from its important nature and content, thus entirely ignored by a rival theorist.

(2)

The first two and a part of the third chapter of the work, which have been published, give a general outline of Kuntaka's main theory; but it is not known how many chapters his original treatise comprised. The fourth chapter in the Madras MS, however, which breaks off without completing the work, may be presumed to have formed its natural conclusion, inasmuch as it deals with the last variety of vakratā enumerated by the author. The running prose Vrtti, accompanving the Kārikā-ślokas, and forming an integral part of the work itself, appears to have been composed by Kuntaka himself; for not only the commentator expressly identifies himself with the author, but the citations of later writers¹ indicate that the Kārıkās should be taken en bloc with the quotations from Kālidāsa, Bhavabhūti, Vrtti. Besides Anangaharşa (author of the Tāpusa-vatsarāja), Hāla, Bāna, Māgha, Bhāravi, Bhallata, Amaru, Mayūra, Śrīharşa, Bhatta Nārāyana, Rājasekhara, Kuntaka mentions by Sarvasena, Manjīra, Mayuraja, and the Udatta-ragnava,

¹ Comm. to Vyakti-vivcka p. 16; Kāma-dhenu on Vāmana p. 6, etc.

and quotes from Bhāmana, Rudraţa and the Dhvanikāra (=Ānandavardhana). The work stands unique for its exposition of the theory of vakrokti, which is apparently developed on the lines indicated by Bhāmaha, as well as for its analysis of a poetic figure on its basis, which is implicitly accepted by all writers from Ruyyaka to Jagannātha.

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Edition. By S. K. De, in the Calcutta Oriental Series, 1st ed. from a single MS 1923; 2nd revised and enlarged ed. is based on two MSS (from Madras and Jesalmere respectively), containing Unmeşas i, ii and a part of Unmeşa iii, with a résumé of the unedited portion of Unmeşa iii and iv, and an introduction. Calcutta Orient. Ser, 1928.

KSEMENDR A

(1)

The industrious Kashmirian polygrapher Kşemendra, with the surname Vyāsadāsa, is notable in Sanskrit Poetics for his two interesting treatises, Aucitya-vicāra-carcā and Kavi-kaņṭhābharaṇa. He refers to another work of his,² devoted to the treatment of poetic figures, entitled Kavi-karṇikā.

Kşemendra himself gives us an indication of his date. The concluding verses of his two works, as well as of his Suvṛtta-tilaka (ed. Kāvymālā Gucchaka 2, 1886), state that he wrote in the reign of king Ananta of Kashmir, while the colophon to his Samaya-mātṛkā tells us that it was finished

- 1 For an exposition see S. K. De's Introd. to the 2nd ed. of Kuntaka's work. Generally speaking, Kuntaka's Vakrokti signifies a mode of expression, differing from and transcending the ordinary mode of speech, and resulting in a characteristic charmingness (vaicitrya or vicchitti), and depends on the imaginative activity of the poet (kavi-pratibhā-nirvartitatva).
- 2 See Jacobi, Ueber Begriff und Wesen der poetischen Figuren in GN 1908.

 3 In Aucit. vic. £1 2.

in the reign of the same king in 1050 A. D. His Dasāvatāra-carita, on the other hand, is dated by himself in 1066 A. D., in the reign of Kalasa, son and successor of Ananta. Ananta reigned from 1028 to 1063 A. D. crowning his son Kalasa in 1063. Bühler¹ is right, therefore, in fixing the period of Kşemendra's literary activity in the second and third quarters of the 11th century.²

(2)

Peterson proposed³, against the opinion of Bühler, who appears to have left the question open, the identification of Kşemendra with Kşemarāja, the Saiva philosopher of Kashmir, who was a pupil of Abhinavagupta, and who wrote, among numerous other works, a commentary on the Siva-sūtra and on Abhinavagupta's Paramārtha-sāra. Stein supports this identification, but Peterson himself appears to admit later on that his own theory is doubtful. In his Aucitya-vicāra, Kşemendra pays homage to Acyuta or Viṣṇu; but we know that he was, like his father, a Saiva in his youth but was converted afterwards into Vaiṣṇavism, as he himself indicates, by Somācārya. This fact, as well as chronology, does not stand in the way of the proposed identification, but there

- 1 Kashmir Rep. p. 46.
- 2 Dhanika, who lived towards the end of the 10th and the beginning of the 11th century, appears to quote (on i. 61) two verses which occur in some MSS of Ksemendra's Brhatkathā-mañjarī (ii. 216, 217), and this fact apparently militates against this conclusion of Ksemendra's date; but we know that the Brhatkathā-mañjarī was composed about 1037 A.D., and as the four lines in question occur in one of the MSS only, it is generally admitted now, for this and other reasons, that they are later interpolations. Ksemendra (Aucit. vic. ad śl. 11. 16, 20) quotes Parimala (otherwise known as Padmagupta) who was a contemporary of Dhanañjaya and Dhanika.
- 3 i (Detailed Report), 1883, p. 11, 85 and Bühler in IA xiii, 1884, p. 29. Bühler really proposed the identification of Kremarāja, author of Sāmba-pañcāśikā, with Kremendra who wrote Spanda-saṃdoha, but distinguished both from the poet Kremendra Vyāsadāsa (see Kashmir Rep. p. 81 and fn).

 4 iv p. xxiii.

is no direct evidence to support it. Ksemendra describes himself as son of Prakāsendra and grandson of Sindhu¹. and the name of his preceptor is given as Gangaka.² He was also father of Somendra, and preceptor of Udayasimha and rājaputra Lakṣaṇāditya3. We know nothing, on the other hand, of Kşemarāja's genealogy or personal history. But we are told at the end of the Brhatkathā-mañjarī that Kşemendra learnt sāhitya from Abhinavagupta, while Kşemarāja at the end of his Svacchandoddyota⁴ (as well as in the colophon to his Stava-cintāmaņi) is described as sisya of the same great philosopher. It is worth noting, however, that while Kşemendra's surname Vyāsadāsa⁵ is given in all his works (with the exception of his Kalā-vilāsa), it does not occur in any of Kşemarāja's philosophical treatises. Kşemendra has taken care to let us know a great deal about himself, but Ksemarāja always hides his light under a bushel and is apparently free from this trace of natural vanity. The question, therefore, cannot be taken as definitely settled, and can be satisfactorily solved when, as Bühler long ago pointed out, the name of Ksemaraja's father is found.

A list of Kşemendra's numerous works is given below.

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a. Aucitya-vicāra-carcā

Editions. (1) Kāvyamālā Gucchaka i, 1886. (2) With comm. Sahrdayatoşiņī of Švetāraņya-nārāyaņa. Madras 1906. Our

- 1 Concluding verse of the Daśāvatāra.
- 2 Aucit. vic. under śl. 39. He quotes also Bhatta. Tauta. Among other citations we find Bhatta Bhallata, Gauda-kumbhakāra and Kuntesvara-dautya of Kālidāsa.
- 3 Kavi-kaṇṭhā° under v. i (pp. 138.139). Of his pupil Udayasiṃha. Kṣemendra quotes Lalitābhidhāna-mahākāvya.
 - 4 Bühler op. cut. App. ii p. clxix (extract).
- 5 Three stanzas are attributed to Vyāsadāsa in Subhās (460, 1658, 3039).
 6 IA xiii, loc. cit.
- 7 For a brief résumé of Kşemendra's two works, see below vol. ii, ch. ix (i); on his didactic and satiric works see S. K. De, Hist. of Sansk. Lit., Calcutta 1947, pp. 404-10.

references are to the former. Also ed. Chowkhamba Sansk. Series, Benares 1933. For an account of the work, see Peterson in *JBRAS* xvi pp. 167-180, where all the quotations in the work are collected together and discussed.

b, Kavi-kanthābharana

Editions. (1) Kāvyamālā Gucchaka iv, 1887, 1899 (2) Chowkhamba Sansk. Series, Benares 1933. A monograph on the work with analysis and German translation by J. Schönberg, Wien 1884 (in Sb. der Wiener Akad.).

There is no trace of Kşemendra's Kavi-karnikā.

The Works of Kşemendra. A list of the works of Kşemendra, published and unpublished, is given here. Those which are quoted in Aucitya-vicāra, Kavi-kaṇṭhābharaṇa and Suvṛṭṭa-tilaka are marked respectively with the signs (A), (K) and (S).

1. Amrta-taranga (or oturanga) (K). 2. Aucitya-vicāra. 3. Avasara-sāra (A), 4. Kanaka-jānakī (K), 5. Kalā-vilāsa (ed Kāvyamālā Gucchaka i). 6. Kavi-kanthābharana. 7. Kavikarnikā (A). 8. Kşemendra-prakāśa (mentioned in ABod 38b). 9. Caturvarga-samgraha (A, K, and ed. Kāvyamālā Gucchaka 5). 10. Cāru-caryā (ed. Kāvyamālā Gucchaka 2). 11. Citrabhārata-nāṭaka (A and K) 12. Darpa-dalana (ed. Kāvyamāla Gucchaka 6, 1891). 13 Dašāvatāracarita-kāvya (ed. Durgaprasad and K. P. Parab, NSP, 1891). 14. Desopadeśa (K; ed. M. Kaul, Srinagar 1923). 15. Dāna-pārijāta, 16. Narma-mālā (ed. M. Kaul, Srinagar 1923). 17. Nītikalpataru (may be the same as Nīti-latā quoted in A). 18. Padya-kādambarī (K). 19. Pavana-pañcāśikā (S). 20. Brhatkathā-mañjarī (ed. Sivadatta and Parab, NSP 1901). 21. Bauddhāvadāna-kālpalatā (A; with its Tibetan version, ed. Sarat Chandra Das, 2 vols. Bibl. Ind. 1888-1918). 22. Bhārata-mañjarī (ed. Sívadatta and Parab, NSP 1898). 23. Muktāvali-kāvya (A and K). 24. Munimata-mīmāmsā (A). Rājāvali (mentioned in Kahlaņa i. 13). 26. Rāmāyaņamañjarī (ed. Bhavadatta and Parab, NSP 1903). 27.

Lalitaratna-mālā. 28, Loka-prakāśa (Text in transliteration, Ind. Stud. xviii, 1898, pp. 298-412; J. Bloch with trans. notes etc. P. Geuthner, Paris 1914) (A). 29 Lāvaņyavatīkāvya (A and K). 30. Vātsyāyana-sūtra-sāra (A and ovoted in the Pañca-sāyaka), 31. Vinaya-vallī (A). 32. Vetāla-p: ncavimsati (from the Brhatkathā-mañjarī, ed. H. Uhle, München 1924). 33. Vyāsāstaka mentioned in Bühler's Kashmir Report (1877) no. 154; see p. 45-46, 34. \$a\$ivam\$a-mahākāvya (K). 35. Samaya-mātrkā (ed. Durgaprasad and Parab, NSP 1888). 36. Suvrtta-tilaka (ed. Kāvyamālā Gucchaka 2; also ed. Chowkhamba Skt. Series 1933. 37. Sevya-sevakopadeśa (ed. Kāvyamālā Gucchaka 2). The Hastijanaprakāśa mentioned by Schönberg and Peterson is by Ksemendra, son of Yadu Sarman (see Kāvyamālā p. 115 fn and Aufrecht i. 765). The Navaucitya-vicārá in Schönberg is probably the same work as Aucitya-vicāra. The Kalā-vilāsa has been translated into German by R. Schmidt in WZKM xxviii, 1914, p. 406-35; the Darpa-dalana by the same in ZDMG lxix, 1915, pp. 1-51 (also ed. and transl. by B. A. Hirszbant, St. Petersberg 1892); Samaya-mātrkā, trs. by J. J. Meyer, Leipzig 1903. Parts of Bihatkatha-mañjari has been translated by Sylvain Lévi (1st Lambhaka with text in Roman) in JA vi, 1885, pp. 397-479; by Leo v. Mankowski (Pañcatantra, with text in Roman), Leipzig 1892.

PHOJA

(1)

The earliest writer on Poetics who quotes Bhoja seems to be Hemacandra¹ who flourished, as we shall see, in the first half of the 12th century; while Vardhamāna, who however did not write till 1140 A.D., mentions Bhoja in the second verse of his Gaṇa ratna, the Vṛtti on which explains this Bhoja as the author of the Sarasvatī-kaṇṭhābharaṇa. The latest writer quoted by Bhoja appears to be Rājašekhara²

¹ p. 295 Comm., besides anonymous quotations.

² From Karpūra-mahj", Bāla-bhā", and Viddhasāla". See Sten

whose latest date is the beginning of the 10th century, although some verses from the Caura pañcāsikā (no. 12, ed. Bohlen), attributed to Bihlana, occur in the Sarasvatī-k° (ad i. 152)¹. Bhoja appears also to refer in one verse (ad i. 71, p. 22) to Muñja, apparently Muñja-vākpatirāja of Mālava, Jacob² is misleading in putting down the name of Nami-sādhu (who did not write his commentary on Rudraţa till 1069 A.D.) in the list of authors quoted by Bhoja; for the verses in question, though found in Nami, are not Nami's own but really quoted by him from previous authors². Bhoja also quotes about sixteen times several verses occurring in Daśa-rūpaka and its commentary⁴, which belong to the time of Muñja, i.e. the end of the 10th and the beginning of the 11th century. The internal evidence of the text, therefore, places the author of the Sarasvatī-k° in the period between the

Konow's ed. of Karpūra-manjo pp. 198 f., for the quotations; also Jacob JRAS, 1897, p. 304f.

- 1 We have not based any chronological inference on this, because Bihlana's authorship of the work is not beyond question, and Solf tries to demonstrate the existence of a poet called Cora or Caura, whose date is not known.
 - 2 op. cit. p. 304.
- 3 For instance, the verse ayam padmāsanāsīna° (Bhoja ad i. 51, p. 15) is found, no doubt, in Nami on xi. 24, but it is really a quotation, along with several other verses in the same context, from Bhāmaha ii. 55. Similarly the two verses sa marutā and sa pītuvāsā, quoted by Bhāmaha himself (ii. 41, 58) from some previous authors (one of whose names is given as Rāmaśarman) occur in Bhoja anonymously (ad i. 121 pp. 43, 44) but they are also quoted by Nami in the same context. There is no reason to suppose that Bhoja took these verses from Nami's Comm. instead of going directly to Bhāmaha, from whom he quotes several other verses directly (e.g. ākrośan nāhvayan, Bhoja ad iii. 8, p. 144=Bhāmaha ii. 94; Bhāmaha ii. 92=Bhoja ad iv. 51, p. 226-7=Subhāṣ° 1645 bhāmahasya). Similar remarks apply to the other supposed quotations given by Jacob, whose mistake is probably due to the fact that Bhāmaha's text was not available to him.
- 4 One verse under Daša-rūpaka iv. 66 (lakṣmī-payodharotsaṅga-) which Dhanika quotes as his own (yathā mamaiva) is quoted by Bhoja as example of Anyokti (S. K. iv).

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second and the fourth quarters of the 11th century; and as this date fits in easily with the known date of the ninth Paramära ruler Bhoja of Dhārā, one of the well-known princes of the 11th century, noted for his patronage of letters, the two may be taken to have been reasonably identified. Our Bhoja is frequently cited in later Alamkāra literature as Bhojarāja, and sometimes simply as rājan¹ which designation, like that of muni applied to Bharata, seems to mark him out par excellence in this literature.

(2)

Kahlaņa states (vii. 259)² that king Bhoja ot Dhārā was the true friend of poets; and it is possible that he had himself literary predilections. He was son and successor of Sindhurāja and nephew of Muñja-vākpatirāja who was also, as we have seen, a great patron of letters. The date of Bhoja is well known from his own and other inscriptions². Alberuni² mentions him as still reigning in 1030 A.D., while the date Śaka 964= 1042 A.D. is given by the Rājamṛgāṅka which is attributed to Bhoja. We know also that he fought with Cālukya Jayasiṃha III between 1011 and 1019 A.D., and with the latter's successor Someśvara (1042-1066 A.D.) who, according to Bihlaṇa, took Dhārā by storm and forced Bhoja to fiee. Bihlaṇa himself speaks of Bhoja as of a contemporary whom he did not visit though he might have done so²s. In

¹ e.g. Vidyādhara pp. 98, 150, 192, 287, 304, and Mallinātha pp. 287, 304 etc.

² sa ca bhoja-narendras ca dānotkarşeņa visrutau sūrī tasmin kşaņe tulyam dvāvāstām kavi-bāndhavau.

³ IA vi, p. 53f (Ujjain Plate, 1021-22 A.D.); El i, p. 230-33; El ix, p. 182 (Banswara Plate, 1020 A.D.); El xviii, p. 320 (Betma Plate, 1020 A.D.); the Sarasvati Image Inscription in the Br. Museum (Rupam, 1924, p. 18; 1033 A.D.); Tilakwada Copper plate (Proc. of the 1st Orient. Conf. p. 319; 1047 A.D.) etc.

⁴ ed. Sachau i. 191. According to Merutunga, Bhoja succeeded Munja in Samvat 1078=1022 A.D. See, however, Bhandarkar, Rep. 1882-83, pp. 44-45.

⁵ Buhler's ed. Vikramānka" p. 23 fn; also text xviii. 96.

Kahlana's assertion, referred to above, with respect to Bhoja and Ksitiraja, the phrase tasmin ksane is taken by Bühler to refer to the period when, after the nominal coronation of Kalasa in 1062 A.D., Kşitirāja became a samnyāsin and sometimes visited king Ananta in order to console him. interpretation is correct, we get a limit to Bhoja's date at 1062 A.D. A copper-plate of his successor Jaysimha¹, however, is dated 1055 A.D., and throws doubt on Bühler's conjecture. All this, however, will justify us in fixing Bhoja's date with great probability between 1010 and 1055 A.D.; i.e, roughly covering a part of the first and whole of the second quarter of the 11th century, and he may have lived into the third quarter of the same century. The exact dates of his accession and death are unknown; but it seems that he died after long illness, in the midst of wars with Bhīma, king of Gujarat and with Kalacuri Karna, king of Tripuri2.

(3)

Besides his well-known Sarasvatī-kaṇṭhābharaṇa, Bhoja appears also to have written a work called Śṛṅgāra-prakāśa³, a MS of which exists in the Government Oriental MSS Library, Madras⁴. It is composed in 36 prakāśas⁵, and is described as the largest known work in Sanskrit Poetics. It deals with both Poetics and Dramaturgy. The first eight

- 1 El iii, pp. 46-50 (Mandhata Plate).
- 2 Prabandha-cintāmaņi of Merutunga, Tawney's trs. p. 4.
- 3 This work is mentioned by Vidyādhara p. 98; by Kumārasvāmir p. 114, 221; by Rāyamukuţa and Sarvānanda on Amara; by Hemādri on Raghu etc.
- 4 Mentioned in the Rep. of the Working of the Peripatetic Party of the Library, 1916-19. The work has not yet been published, except three Prakāśas (22-24) by Yadugiri Yatiraj of Melcote (Mysore 1926) and extracts given by V. Raghavan in his Śrńgāra-prakāśa (i, pt. 2, pp. 513-42). But V. Raghavan has made a detailed study of the work in the work cited (vol. i, pt 1 and ii, Bomby 1940, pp. 1-542).
- 5 The whole of ch. xxvi is missing, as also the end of ch. xxv and beginning of ch. xxvii, besides smaller gaps.

chapters are devoted to the quasi-grammatical relating to word and its sense as the means of expression, and the theory of vrtti. The ninth and the tenth chapters describe the blemishes and excellences of expression (dosa and guna); while the eleventh and twelfth chapters deal respectively with the Mahākāvya and the drama. The next twenty-four chapters treat exclusively of the Rasas, of which the Stingara or love in its various aspects (in relation to the four Puruşārthas, Dharma, Artha, Kāma and Moksa) is maintained, in the light of his novel theory of one Rasa of Ahamkara-Abhimana-Srngara, to be the principal and essential; and the work derives its name from Bhoja's theory that Spingara is the only one Rasa admissible. As in the Sarasvatī-k°, this work, in the manner of a cyclopaedic compilation, gives a large number of quotations to illustrate the rules and principles laid down. Sāradātanaya's Bhāva-prakāsana, which deals with the same subject, constitutes really a summary of the important chapters of Bhoja.

(4)

The Sarasvatī-kaṇṭhābharaṇa, consisting of five Paricchedas, is not a very original work, but consists chiefly of a patient compilation in an encyclopaedic manner from earlier treatises, especially from Daṇḍin, from whom he takes, according to the calculation of Jacob², no less than 164 illustrations. From the index of citations given by Jacob, we find that Vāmana is quoted 22 times, Rudraṭa 19 times, the Dhvanyāloka more than 10 times (six of the kārikās being reproduced), while it is curious to note that Bhoja makes a good use

¹ Cf Vidyādhara rājā tu śrūgāram ekam eva śrūgāra-prakāše rasam urarīcakāra p. 98; Kumārasvāmin p. 221 śrūgāra eka eva rasa iti śrūgāra-prakāša-kārah. For a brief résumé of the work see below under vol. ii, ch. 6.—Bhoja in four chapters (xviii-xvi) deals with what he calls Dharma-śrūgāra, Artha-śrūgāra, Kāma-śrūgāra and Mokṣa-śrūgāra. But he devotes 16 chapters (xxii-xxvi) entirely to what may be called Laukika Śrūgāra in its Sambhoga and Vipralambha aspects.

² loc. cit.

of Bhatti's illustrations of the figure yamaka and its numerous subspecies. After dealing with general topics of Poetics, the work speaks somewhat symmetrically of 16 Dosas respectively of Pada. Vākva and Vākvārtha, and 24 Gunas respectively of Sabda and Vakyartha. In the second and third chapter 24 Sabdālamkāras and Arthālamkāras respectively are defined and illustrated. In the fourth chapter 24 Sabdarthalamkāras are similarly dealt with. It is noteworthy that the Rītis, mentioned as six in number, are regarded as Sabdarthālamkāras. In the fifth chapter we have a treatment of Rasas. Bhāvas, Nāyaka-nāyikā, the five Samdhis, and four Vṛttis, etc. While the chief value of Bhoja's work consists in its abundant wealth of illustrations and examples, numbering more than 1500, to every rule and prescription, it is nevertheless interesting as embodying, in the main, a tradition of opinion, which is also represented in the Agni-purana, but which in many respects stands apart from the orthodox Kashmirian school.

Bhoja is credited with having composed more than 80 works, most of which are voluminous. His work on Grammar (ed. Madras Univ. 1937; also ed. Trivandrum Skt. Series, with Hṛdayahāriṇī Comm. of Nārāyaṇa Daṇḍanātha, 1935-48) is also called Sarasvatī-kanthābharaṇa.

(5)

The commentators on Bhoja, as noted below, are numerous, but they are not of much importance. Ratneśvara's commentary has been published several times together with the text, but so far only three chapters of it have been printed.

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of Ratnesvara (on i-iii) and of Jagaddhara (on iv), Bombay 1925, 1934. Our references are to ed. Boorah 1884.

Commentaries. (1) Ratna-darpana by Misra Ratnesvara. Ed. with the text by Jivananda, Calcutta 1894; ed. Benares and ed. NSP, as above. The nominal author Rāmasimhadeva, mentioned in the introductory stanza 2, is apparently the author's patron. In the colophon, the author's name is given as Miśra Ratneśvara; and in Benares ed. of the text, the commentary is said to have been written at the command of Rāmasimha-deva (of Tirhut?). In the Catalogues, the work is sometimes inaccurately given by Ramasimha-deva. The author refers to a comm. on the Kav. prak. by himself. Only the first three chapters of this Ratna-darpana have been published in the editions noted; and both the Madras and Bodleian MSS contain these chapters only. Ratnesvara appears to have flourished in the 14th century A.D. (2) Mārjanā by Harinātha, mentioned by himself in his Comm. on Dandin (A Bod 206b). See above p. 70. (3) Duşkara-citra-prakāśikā by Lakşainātha Bhatta. He may be identical with Lakşmīnatha who, according to Kielhorn Report 1880 81 p. 71, wrote his Pingala-pradipa in 1601 A.D. Kielhorn's MS of this latter work appears to have been copied in 1660, while Burnell's (Pingalartha-dipika pp. 53b. 175b) in 1632 A.D. (4) Tīkā by Jagaddhara, son of Ratnadhara and Damayanti. Extract given in Ulwar Cat. 1086 and Stein p. 275. The printed portion of the Comm. in the NSP ed. is on the 4th chapter. This work is probably earlier than the 17th century but later than the 14th (see Bhandarkar, Pref. to Mālatī mādhava pp. xviii-xxi). Jagaddhara's genealogy is given thus: Candesvara→Vedesvara (or Vedadhara)→Rāmadhara (Rāmeśvara)→Gadādhara→ Vidyādhara -> Ratnadhara -> Jagaddhara. He wrote several commentaries (Aufrecht i. 195) e.g. on the Megha-dūta, Vāsavadattā, Venī-samhāra, Mālatī-mādhava etc. MS in

Stein (p. 276) is dated saka 1521 = 1460 A.D. (5) Comm. by Harikrsna Vyāsa. SCB 34.

b. Śṛṅgāra-prakāśa

The only known MS is in the Government Oriental MSS Library, Madras, mentioned in their Report quoted above. The work has not yet been published except in parts; see above p. 136.

Of other published works bearing the name of Bhoja, the Samarāṅgaṇa-sūtradhāra (ed. T. Ganapati Sastri, 2 vols. GOS, Baroda 1924, 1925) deals chiefly with architecture and iconography; the Yukti-kalpataru (ed. Isvara Chandra Sastri, Calcutta 1917) with Nīti-Śāstra; the Tattava-prakāsa, ed. T. Ganapati Sastri, with Tātparya-dīpikā comm. of Śrīkumāra, Trivandrum Skt. Series 1920; trs. E. P. Janvier in IA liv, 1925, pp. 151-56) with religio-philosophical topics; while the Rāja-mārtaṇḍa commentary on the Yoga-sūtra (ed. Bibl. Ind. Calcutta 1883; ed. Chowkhamba Skt. Series, along with the text and five other comm. Benares 1930; ed Jivananda Vidya-sagar, Calcutta 1903; trs. Ganganath Jha, Bombay 1907) is devoted to an exposition of the Yoga philosophy.

MAHIMABHATTA

(1)

Rājānaka Mahiman, Mahimaka or Mahimabhaţţa, who is cited generally as the Vyaktiviveka-kāra¹ from the name of his work, was, as indicated by his title, probably a Kashmirian writer, who describes himself as son of Śrī-Dhairya and disciple of mahākavi Śyāmala. He informs us at the outset of his work (i. 3) that his principal object is to consider the views of the Dhvanikāra; and as in the course of his discourse he examines the text of the Dhvanyāloka, quoting

1 Visvanātha, ed. Durgaprasad, NSP., 1915, p. 18, 249; Mallinātha on Kirāta iii. 21; Ruyyaka, ed. NSP., p. 12; Kesava Misra p. 80-81; Jagannātha p. 13 etc. Kesava mentions his name as Mahiman.

from the Karika and the Vrtti with a minuteness which cannot be mistaken, we may infer with certainty that he was later than Anandavardhana¹. It is also probable that Mahimabhatta was later than Anandavardhana's commentator, Abhinavagupta; for in some places he betrays an acquaintance with the latter's work. At p. 19, for instance, Mahimabhatta quotes directly a long passage from the Locana (p. 33). and shows himself alive to the point involved in Abhinava's discussion by criticising it. The passage refers to Dhvanyāloka i. 13 where the Dhvanikāra uses the verb vyanktah in the dual number with the express purpose, as Abhinava explains, of indicating a duality of sense. Bhatta Nāyaka appears to have taken exception to this use of the dual number, upon which Abhinava concludes by remarking: tena yad bhatta-nāyakena dvi-vacanam dūsitam tad gaja-nimīlikavaiva. Mahimabhatta, referring to this discussion, quotes anonymously the remarks of Abhinava (not only the aboveline but the whole passage), with the statement: kecid vimāninah...vad āhus tad bhrānti-mūlam (p. 19). The terms of reference apparently indicate, as Narasimha Iyengar rightly points out,2 that Mahimabhatta is here referring clearly to Abhinava as a theorist of a rival system who. if not contemporaneous, could not have flourished long before his own time. It should be noted that Mahimabhatta quotes and criticises (p. 28) certain views set forth by Kuntaka in his Vakrokti-iivita (i. 7-8) and attempts to show that Vakrokti. like Dhvani, is to be included under Anumana. He also quotes from Rājasekhara's Bāla-rāmāyana (pp. 40, 50) and Viddhaśālabhañjikā (p. 85). This gives us one terminus to Mahimabhatta's date. On the other hand. Ruyyaka who, as we shall see, flourished in the first half of the 12th century and probably also wrote the anonymous commentary on Mahimabhatta (printed in the Trivandrum edition of the text), is the

¹ Cf Jayaratha p. 12; dhvanikārāntarabhāvī vyaktivivekakāra iti, the Dhvanikāra being, to Jayaratha, Ānandavardhana himself.

² JRAS, 1908, pp. 65f.

earliest writer to quote and criticise Mahimabhațța.¹ We may, therefore, assign Mahimabhațța to the period between Abhinava and Ruyyaka, i.e later than the first quarter of the 11th but earlier than the first quarter of the 12th century, and approximately fix his date towards the last half or the end of the 11th century. This date will be in harmony with the probable date of Syāmala, who is mentioned by Mahimabhaţţa as his preceptor, if this Syāmala is the same poet as is quoted by Kşemendra.²

(2)

It is difficult to determine what relation Mahimabhatta bore to Śańkuka who was also, like Mahimabhatta, an anumitivādin³ in his theory of Rasa, for Śańkuka's work has not yet been recovered. Our author claims for himself originality

- 1 Iyengar (op. cit.) and Harichand (op. cit: p. 105) think that Mahimabhatta is "quoted or criticised" by Mammata; but, as Kāv. prak. v, p. 252 (B. S. S. 1917) shows, Mammata does not at all cite Mahimabhatta or his work, but only criticises an anumāna-theory which tries to explain the concept of dhvani by means of inference. No chronological conclusion can be based on this; for Anandavardhana also refers to a similar theory long before Mahimabhatta wrote.
- 2 Aucit. vic. ad śl. 16; Suvrtta. til. ad ii. 31. Also Subhās° 2292. Ksemendra's Syāmala appears to be identical with Syāmilaka, who wrote the Bhana entitled Pada-tāditaka (ed. Ramakrishna Kavi and Ramanatha Sastri, Madras 1922); for the verses, attributed to Syamala in the two works of Ksemendra noted above, occur as \$1.33 and 125. respectively in the printed text of the Bhana. The colophon describes the author of the Bhana as son of Visvesvaradatta and an udicya (northerner), which makes it probable that he is the Kashmirian. Syāmala, Syāmalaka or Syāmilaka, also cited by Abbinavagupta. Both Abhinava and Kuntaka quote anonymously verses from this Bhana. The verse ascribed to Syamalaka in the Subhas (prayascittam mrgayate priyā-pāda-tāḍitaḥ | kṣālanīyaṃ śiras tasya kāniā-gandūsavah sidhubhih) refers unmistakably to this Bhana and the second line occurs in a slightly modified form in the Bhana itself (ad sl. 132). Rājašekhara cites a Śyāmadeva (pp. 11, 13, 17).
- 3 He is so called by Mallinatha (Tarala p. 85) and Kumarasvamin. (p. 219).

of treatment and freedom from slavish imitation.1 and his. omission of all references to his predecessor need not. fore, appear strange. The only testimony of Ramacarana. an 18th century Bengal commentator on Visvanatha. need not be seriously considered; but it is probable that the theory developed by Mahima did not originate in himself. Anandavardhana refutes at some length some theory of anumana (pp. 201f) which attempted to explain that the suggested sense posited by the dhvani-theory, can be arrived at by the proces: of logical inference. Mahimabhatta himself gives Antaraślokas or Antarayas (besides Samgraha-ślokas summarising a discussion), which add to the discussion and are probably adduced from extenal sources, indicating previous exposition of similar topics by other writers. Thus, Mahimabhatta probably worked out systematically some such thesis (anticipated, it may be, by Anandavardhana), as a direct rejoinder to Ananda's classical exposition; but there is no evidence to connect him with the theory accredited to Sankuka by Abhinavagupta and others.

The Vyakti-viveka, consisting of three Vimarsas, is essentially a vigorous piece of polemic writing, which does not propose to set forth any new theory or system, but whose only object is to demolish the theory of Dhvani by shewing that the so-called function of Vyañjanā posited by Ānandavardhana is nothing more than the already recognised process of Anumāna or logical inference. In the first Vimarsa he states and amplifies his own position by criticizing the definition of Dhvani. In the second Vimarsa he considers the question of Aucitya, relating to Sabda and Artha. In the third Vimarsa about forty examples are cited from the Dhvanyā-loka and shewn to be really cases of Anumāna and not of Vyañjanā

- 1 He says, for instance, that he has written his work without looking into Candrikā and Darpaṇa, which apparently had the same object in view as the demolition of the dhvani-theory (i. 4, 5).
- 2 ed. Durgaprasad p. 248, ed. Röer p. 121 note: śańkuka-matānuyāyinām vyaktiviveka-kārādīnām matam dūşayati.
 - 3 Mahimabhatta's views will be considered in detail below in vol. ii.

(3)

From the Vyakti-viveka itself (p. 108) we learn that Mahimabhatta also wrote a work entitled Tattvokti-kośa, where he is said to have discussed what he calls pratibhā-tattva, in connexion with the poetic conception of an idea.

Mahimabhatta's work which recognised the new concept of dhvani, but tried to explain it by the established process of anumāna (and not by the separate function of vyañjanā explained by Ānandavardhana), never found any recognition in the hands of later theorists, most of whom became partisans of the latter. Even his commentator does not appear to possess much sympathy for his somewhat extreme view,² and Mahimabhatta is rather unique in having no followers in later literature.

The commentator referred to has been identified with some reason's with Ruyyaka, who has another commentary on Mammata to his credit, as well as several independent works on Alamkāra. We shall deal with him hereafter as an independent writer on Alamkāra,

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¹ Cf Jacobi Sb. der Preuss. Akad. xxiv. 225 fn.

² Mahimabhatta's views are vigorously criticised by Ruyyaka (Alam. sarvasva, pp. 12f), and Viśvanātha (Sāhitya-darpaņa, p. 248f).

³ For the arguments summarised see Kane, HSP, p. 245.

CHAPTER VI

MAMMATA AND ALLATA

(1)

A great deal of uncertainty exists with regard to the exact date of Mammața whose name, as well as the title rājānaka, indicates that he was probably a Kashmirian. The story relied upon by Hall and Weber that Mammața was the maternal uncle of the author of Naisadha may be relegated to the region of fantastic fables which often gather round celebrated names. The lower limit of Mammața's date, however, may be fixed with reference to one dated MS and two commentaries on the Kāvya prakāśa, of which the date can be ascertained. The commentary of Māṇikyacandra is expressly dated in Samvat 1216=1159-60 A. D. The exact

- Mahimabhatta on the mistaken authority of Keśava Miśra's erroneous citation (p. 80-81). The passage in which Keśava cites Mahimabhatta clearly refers not to Mammata but to Mahimabhatta, author of the Vyakti-viveka, mentioned in the same context. The verse anaucityād ṛte, however, which is thus quoted and attributed to Mahiman by Keśava, occurs originally in the Vṛtti of the Dhvanyāloka (p. 145) from which apparently it is also cited in the Vyakti-viveka (pp. 31, 114) with a sa evāha, along with many other verses similarly quoted from the same text. Kešava might have taken the verse directly from Vyakti-viveka's citation, without knowing the original source, and wrongly attributed it to Mahiman himself. It does not occur at all in the Kāv. prak. Aufrecht's suggestion, therefore, that Mammata is a corruption of the name Mahimabhatta, like his other supposition that the name Rudrabhatta yields Rudrata, is unwarranted. Cf Peterson ii p. 19.
 - 2 Introd. to Vāsavadattā p. 55.
 - 3 Hist. of Sansk. Lit. (Eng. trans, 2nd ed.), p. 232 fn.
- 4 A Jesalmere Jaina Bhandar MS of Kav. prak. appears to have been copied in Samvat 1215 Asvina 14 (=1158 A.D. Oct. 8) at Anahila-pataka while Kumarapala was still ruling. It is noteworthy that the

date of Ruyyaka's commentary is not known, but we know from other sources that Ruyyaka flourished in the second and third quarters of the 12th century. The earliest dated MS from Jesalmere appears to have been copied in 1158 A.D. Mammaţa, therefore, cannot be placed later than the beginning of the 12th century.¹

The other limit cannot be settled so satisfactorily. It has been maintained that Mammata in one verse (bhoja-nrpates tat-tyāga-līlāyitam under x. 26b; B. S. S. ed. 1917, p. 684) eulogises Bhoja with whom he may be presumed to have been contemporaneous. This is sought to be supported by

colophon states that it is the joint work of Mammata and Alaka (kṛtī mammatālakayoḥ). See P. K. Gode in JOR, xiii, p. 46-53 (=his Studies in Ind. Lit. Hist. 1, p. 235f.)

1 Jhalakikara maintains, on the authority of Paramananda Cakravartin and Nāgojī on Mammaţa, that Mammaţa in several places criticises Ruyyaka, who therefore must be placed earlier than Mammata. But the passages he cites do not support his contention. Thus, the verse rājaii tatīyam (Kāv. prak. p. 758) is supposed to be directed against Ruyyaka p. 199, where the same verse is quoted in the same context. It appears, however, that Mammata gives this verse as an instance of sub. lalamkara-samkara without any comment but with the simplestatement 'hat here we have a commixture of yamaka and anulomapratiloma-citra dependent on one another. Ruyyaka, on the other hand, citing the same verse and referring to the opinions of "other authors" comments on it at some length. He remarks that though the verse is given by some as an example of sabdālamkāra-samkara, such commixture of sabdalamkaras, in his opinion, is not possible, and the example is faulty. The verse itself occurs in Ratnakara's Hara-vijaya (v. 137). Jayaratha and Samudrabandha also remark in this connexion that the anonymous authors, referred to by Ruyyaka in his criticism, allude to "Mammata and others." Besides, Ruyyaka himself quotes (p. 102) Mammata's Kārikā iv. 15-16. Jayaratha expressly says that Ruyyaka wrote a commentary on Mammata called Kāvyaprakāśasamketa (p. 102). In several other places, both Javaratha and Samudrabandha point out that Ruyyaka is criticising Mammata (e.g. Jayaratha pp 77, 102, 107, 150, 163, 199, 204: Samudrabandha pp. 23, 25, 119, 156, 243 249, etc.).

the story, related by a very late commentator Bhimasena.1 that Mammata was the son of Jayyata and had two brothers Kayyata and Uvvata, of whom Uvvata (or Uvata) is taken to be the well known commentator on Vedic works, some of which, as he himself tells us, were composed in Avanti while Bhoja was still reigning (bhoje rājyam prušūsaii). It is suggested on this ground that Uvvata was probably the medium of the quotation referred to above relating to his royal patron: or, assuming it to have been composed by Mammata himself. it might have obtained for its author an introduction into the munificent court of Bhoja 2. But this theory is untenable: for Uvvata tells us that his father's name was Vajrata and not Jayyata; and it is not clear that the stanza in question, given anonymously as an instance of the figure udatta (which consists of a description of the wealth and prosperity of an exalted personage) was composed by Mammata himself, who certainly borrows similar illustrative verses from various sources. All that this anonymous verse may be taken to establish is that its allusion to king Bhoja indicates that Mammata was probably not earlier than Bhoja.

We may, therefore, place Mammata between Ruyyaka on the one hand and Bhoja on the other, if we may assume, on the authority of the commentators, the identity of this Bhoja with the Paramāra Bhoja of Dhārā, the reputed author of the Sārasvatī kⁿ. In other words, Mammata probably belongs to the period between the middle of the 11th and the first quarter of the 12th century. Allowing two generations to intervene between him and Ruyyaka, we may assign Mammata's literary activity roughly to the last quarter of the '11th century. Mammata mentions Abhinavagupta who was still living in 1015 A.D. (see above), and quotes anonymously (under x. 131.

¹ Introd. to ed. Kāv-prak. in B.S.S (3rd. ed 1917) pp. 6-7 also extract in Peterson i, p 94.

² Ganganatha Jha in his introd. to his trans. of Kāv. prak. pp. vi-vii.

purāņi yasyām) from Navasāhasānka-carita (canto i), which was composed about 1005 A.D.

(2)

Although well-known for his Kāvya-prakāśa, which helped to establish finally and exclusively the doctrines of the Kashmirian school of Ānandavardhana, Mammaṭa is also the author of a less known work entitled the Śabda-vyāpāra-paricaya which, as its name implies, is a short dissertation on the expressive functions (Vṛtti) of words, a topic which he discusses also in the second Ullāsa of Kav. prāk. Mammaṭa, like most writers on Poetics, was also well-versed in the allied science of grammar, proficiency in which he also displays in the larger work.

On a summary examination of the contents of the $K\bar{a}vya$ -prakāśa,² it will appear that the work is carefully planned and systematically worked out. Peterson, however, on the indication given in Rājānaka Ānanda's Nidarśana³ commentary, first called in question the unity of

- 1 A work on music called Samgīta-ratnāvalī is attributed to Mammata by Gajapati Nārāyaṇadeva in his Samgīta-Nārāyaṇa (see V. Raghavan in ABORI, xvi (1934-35), p. 131; and references therein).
- 2 The Kāvya-prakāša, in ten Ullāsas, consists of Kārikā, Vṛtti and illustrations. The topics in brief are: I. Purpose, source and definition of Kāvya, and its division into Uttama, Madhyama and Adhama. II. Explanation of Abhidhā, Lakṣaṇā and Vyañjanā, and subdivisions of Lakṣaṇā and Vyañjanā. III. Vyañjakatva of all kinds of senses. IV. Division of Dhvani into Avivakṣita-vācya and Vivakṣitānyapara-vācya. Nature of Rasa. V. Guṇībhūta-vyaṅgya and its eight subdivisions. VI. Citra-kāvya VII. Doṣas of Pada, Vākya, Artha and of Rasa. How a Dosa may become charming. VIII. Distinction of Guṇa and Alaṃkāra. Only three Guṇas (Mādhurya, Ojas and Prasāda) admitted. Combination of letters conducive to Guṇas. IX. Figures of Sabda. Vakrokti (of Śleṣa and Kāku), Anuprāsa (Cheka-, Vṛtti- and Lāṭa-), Yamaka and its varieties, Śleṣa, Citra and Punar-uktavadābhāsa. Figures of Artha, enumerated and defined as 61.
- 3 The name of this comm. is Sitikantha-vibodhana as well as Kāvyaprakāsa-nidarsana.

the work, although his first erroneous impression, corrected afterwards by himself2, was that the Kārikā-text was composed by Mammata, while the running prose Vrtti was added by some other hand. There is enough evidence now to show that Mammata composed nearly the whole work (Kārikā and Vrtti), and only a small portion of the last chapter, left incomplete by him, was completed by another author, whose name is given by Ananda as Alata or Alaka. That the fact of joint-authorship is skilfully concealed is supposed to be alluded to in the last verse, given in some of the MSS³, which apparently says that "this way of the learned, though different yet appearing identical, is not strange, for here the only cause is a properly constructed (plan of) combination." This may be explained, no doubt, as meaning that the author here claims the credit of having skilfully removed, in his systematic work, all conflict of opinions held by different authors on Poetics; but most commentators agree in finding here a hint implying that the work left incomplete by Mammata was completed by some other person, and the traces of joint-authorship are ingeniously obliterated. Manikyacandra Sūri, one of the earliest commentators, comments on this verse; atha cāyam grantho'nyenārabdho'parena ca samarthita iti dvi-khando'pi samghatanā-vasād akhandāyate. Ruyyaka remarks in his Samketa commentary: esa grantho granthakṛtānena katham apy asamāptatvād aparena ca pūritāvaseṣatvād dvi-khando'py akhandatayā yad avabhāsate tatra samghatana-In this view Ruyyaka is followed by Jayanta iva hetuh. Bhatta, Someśvara, Narahari Sarasvatītīrtha, Kamalākara, Ānanda, Jajñeśvara and other early as well as late commentators on Mammata. Rājānaka Ānanda, however, is more

¹ Rep. 1 p. 21 f.

² Rep. ii p. 13 f. Cf Buhler in IA xiii p. 30

³ ity eşa mārgo viduşām vibhinno' | pyabhinna-rūpaḥ pratibhāsate yat | na tad vicitram yad amutra samyag | vinirmitā samghaṭanaiva hetuḥ.

explicit and quotes a traditional verse¹ in his *Nidarsana* commentary to show that Mammata composed the work up to the treatment of the figure parikara (x. 32), while the rest, consisting of a small portion of the concluding chapter, was completed by Alaka, Alata or Allata².

This statement about the joint-authorship of the Kāvyaprakāśa receives confirmation from an independent source. Commenting on Amaru-śataka (ed Kāvyamālā 18, 1916, śl. 30). Arjunavarman, who flourished in the first quarter of the 13th century, quotes from the Kāvya-prakāśa under vii. 14 (the verse prasade vartasva³ cited therein) with the remark: yathodāhrtam doşa-nirnaye mammatālakābhyām. same chapter on Dosa in the Kāvya-prakāśa, Amaru 72 is quoted as instancing the fault technically known as jugupsāslīla (vulgarity causing disgust), because the word vāya in the verse is supposed to connote vulgar associations. Arjunavarman defends Amaru from this fastidious criticism with the pointed remark: kim tu hlādaikamayī-vara-labda-prasādau kāvyaprakāśa-kārau prāyena dosu-drstī, yenatvamvidhesvapi sarasa-kavi-samdarbhesu paramārtha-sahrdayānanda-padesu doşam eva sāksāt akurutām. Both these passages, which mention the dual authorship of the Kāvya-prakāśa, refer in particular to ch. vii where the dosas or faults of composition are discussed. Unless the remarks be taken to imply a general

- 1 kṛtuḥ srī-mammaṭācārya-varyuih parikarāvadhih/ prabandhaḥ pūritaḥ seso vidhāyālaṭa- ("laka or "llaṭu-) surinā//.
- 2 This is perhaps the reason why in some MSS of the work the colophon puts down the names of Mammata and Allata (or Alaka) as the authors, e.g. Bodieran MS (Hultzsch Collection 172), which is a Kashmirian MS in Sāradā characters, reads: iti kāvyaprakāsābhidhānam kāvya-lakṣanam samāptam, kriiņ śrī-rājānaka-mammatakālakayoņ. Also Stein, Jammu Cat. MS no. 1145 (cf introd. p xiii f), 1173. See also colophon of an early MS mentioned above p. 145-46, fn. 4. The dual authorship of the Kāv. prak. is accepted by V. S. Sukthankar in ZDMG, xvi, p. 477-90.
- 3 This verse is ascribed to Candraka in Sārngadhara 3565.—On this question, see Kane in 1A, 1911, p. 208.

reference to the fact of joint-authorship without particularly meaning collaboration of any special chapter, one may be led to the conclusion the Allata (here mentioned as Alaka) had a hand not only in the 10th, as the tradition makes it out, but also in the 7th chapter.¹

(3)

Of the three forms of the name, Alaka, Alata and Allata, the last, which is given in Stein's Jammu MS, seems to be the most authentic. The ta is a well-known suffix to Kashmirian names, and Stein says that "this form of the name is the only one known to the tradition of Kashmirian Pundits, to whom the double authorship of the Kāvya-prakāśa is otherwise perfectly familiar." But Alaka is as good a Kashmirian form of the name. This Allata or Alaka is supposed to be the same as Rājānaka Alaka who wrote a commentary on Ruyyaka, and is quoted by Ratnakantha as such 3 If this identification, which was suggested by Peterson but disfavoured by Stein, is correct, then we must also ascribe to him the Visamapadoddyota commentary on Ratnākara's Hara-vijaya, where Alaka is described as son of Rājānaka Jayānaka. It appears strange, however, that Allata the continuator of the Kāvyaprakāśa should also be the commentator of Ruyyaka, who in his turn commented on the same work. This will make the two writers commentators on each other's text; and if this were so, we may naturally expect a reference to this fact

- 1 H. R. Divekar in *JRAS*, 1927, holds that Mammata composed only the Kārikās up to the figure Parikara and that the remaining Kārikās and the whole of the Vṛtti were composed by Alaka. But his arguments are hardly convincing.
- 2 See Jammu Cat. pp. xxiii f. Stein notes that the form Allata of the name is "found also in the fine birch-bark codex of Kāvyaprakāśa-saṃketa written by Pandit Rājānaka Ratnakaṇtha in the Saka year 1570 (A.D. 1648)."
 - 3 Peterson ii p. 17f.
- 4 1 pp. 13, 17. Cf. Bühlet. Kashmir Rep. p. 45. The work, extending over 50 cantos, has been printed in Kavyamālā 22.

by Ruyyaka, who otherwise alludes to the dual authorship of the Kāvya prakāśa, but does not mention the name of Allața as the continuator.¹

(4)

A tradition, chiefly obtaining in Bengal, as we find it in Baladeva Vidyābhūṣaṇa and Maheśvara Nyāyālaṃkāra, two very late Bengal commentators on the Kāvya-prakāśa,² imputes the authorship of the Kārikās (here called sūtras³) to Bharata and the prose-Vṛtti to Mammaṭa, while Bharata himself is said to have drawn upon the Agni-purāṇa. While the last assertion about the Agni-purāṇa has no foundation in fact and is apparently prompted by the amiable but unhistorical imagination of late writers, which delights in exalting the antiquity of the Purāṇas, the suggestion of Bharata's authorship of the Kārikās is too unauthentic and fanciful to be accepted. Mammaṭa's authorship of the Kārikās has been

- 1 It is clear, however, that the combination of names in the colophor. to a MS of the Kāv. prak. (containing, in the same codex the text and Ruyyaka's "Saṃketa commentary), viz., iti śrīmad-rājānakāllaṭa-mammaṭa-rucaka-viracite nijagrantha-kāvyaprakāśa-saṃkete prathama ullāsaḥ, should not lead us to think, as Peterson and Stein do, that the Kāv. prak. is a joint-compilation of Allaṭa, Mammaṭa and Rucaka (or Ruyyaka), but it only indicates the names of the authors of the original work (viz. Mammaṭa and Allaṭa) as well as the name of the author of the "Samketa commentary comprised in the codex.
- 2 Vidyābhūṣaṇa's Sāhitya-kaumudī on Mammaţa, ed. Kāvyamālā 63, 1897, p. 2, and comm.; also comm. p. 1. and text p. 189 (Cf. Peterson ii p. 10f.); Maheśvara's comm. (ed. Jivananda, 1876) p. 1. This view is also endorsed by Jayarāma Pañcānana, another Bengal commentator on Mammaţa (see Peterson ii pp. 21-22, 107).
- 3 The term sūtra should not mislead us into thinking that the work might have been originally composed in that form, upon which the later kūr sā-verses were based; for it is not unusual for the commentators to refer fo Mammata's kārikās themselves as sūtras; e.g. Pradīpa, ed. Kāvyamālā 1912, p. 378 sūtre vibhāga upalakṣaṇa-paraḥ; p. 384 sūtraṃ copalakṣaṇatayā yojyam; Prabhā p. 381 sūtrāṣkarānusārataḥ; Uddvota ed. Chapdorkar, x p. 123.

declared by Hemacandra (Comm. p. $109 = K\bar{a}vya \cdot prak$. v. 1-2b) in the first quarter of the 12th century, as well as accepted by a succession of authors and commentators like Jayaratha, Vidvādhara, Mallinātha, Kumārasvāmin and Appayya. Vaidyanātha, commenting on "Pradīpa (i. 1), alludes to this tradition and rejects it expressly¹; and in this view most of Mammata's other commentators agree. Apart from this, the evidence of the text itself goes directly against such a hypo-The Kārikās iv. 4-5 are expressly supported in the thesis Vrtti by a dictum of Bharata (vi. p. 87. ed. Grosset), and this implies a distinction between the author of the Kārikā and that of the Nātya-śāstra. The Kārikā x. 8b, again, says mālā tu pūrvavat, implying from the context that the figure mālārūpaka follows the rule laid down for the figure mālopamā. which, however, is not taught in any of the previous Kārikās, but explained in the Vrtti. This apparently indicates that the Kārikā and the Vrtti form one block which should be attributed to one and the same author.3

The source of this tradition is probably the unquestioned reverence paid to the sage Bharata, but it may also be due to the fac that Mammata himself has made a considerable use of Bharata's Kārikās. Thus Bharata vi. 15, 17-21 = Mammata iv. 6-11. Mammata, however, has also made a similar use of Kārikās and illustrative verses of many of his predecessors. Thus, the Kārikā in Mammata vii. 10 karṇāva-

- 1 °Prabhā ed. Kāvyamālā p. 2.
- 2 Cf Vaidyanātha on i. 1; granthakṛd itt mammaṭahhaṭṭākhyasya kātikākartur nirdeśaḥ.......bharata-samhitūyām kāsāmcit kārtkānām daršanāt sa eva granthakṛd itt na yuktam; caturthe—"kāranāny atha kāryāṇi sahakārīṇi" (1v. 4) tyādi kārtkārthe "tad uktam bharatena" iti bharata-saṃmati-pradaršanasyāsaṃgatttvāpatteḥ.
- 3 To the same effect Vaidyanātha commenting on this passage, ed. Kāvyamālā 1912. p. 329: etad eva sūtram sūtra-vṛṭtikrtor ekatve jñāpakam, mālopamāyāh sūtrāvanuktāyā vrttāveva kathanāt. Also cf other agreeing opinions quoted in Jhalakikara's comm. ed. B.S.S. 1917, p. 599. See also S. K. De, Mālā tu pūrvavat in ABORI, vi, 1925 (reprinted in Some Problems of Skt. Poetics, Calcutta 1959. p. 131f).

tamsādi-pade) appears as a samgraha śloka in Vāmana's vṛtti on 1i. 2. 19; while the definition of the figure ākṣepa in Mammaṭa x. 20 is taken from Bhāmaha ii. 67a and 68a, or Udbhaṭa ii. 2a and 3a as found quoted in Abhinava's Locana p. 36. Again, Mammaṭa iv.1 and 3 are clearly paraphrases from the Dhvanyāloka ii. 1 and 3. Mammaṭa also makes a large use of Rudraṭa's illustrations.¹

The Kāvya-prakāśa, consisting of ten Ullāsas, traverses the whole field of Sanskrit Poetics (with the exception of drama turgy) in only 143 Kārīkās and about 620 illustrations derived from various sources. As it combines the merit of fulness with that of conciseness, it became one of the classic works of Sanskrit Poetics and Rhetoric which has always maintained a great authority and popularity throughout India. It sums up and explains in the succinct form of a brilliant text-book all the previous speculations on the subject, becoming in its turn the starting point of endless exegetic works and text-books. As such it occupies a unique position in the history of Sanskrit Alamkāra literature.²

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Editions. The work has been very often published, in part or as a whole, with or without commentaries. Only important ed. are mentioned here. Text only or text with modern comm.—(a) ed. Nathuram, Education Press Calcutta 1829 (perhaps the editio princeps). (b) ed. Mahesh Chandra Nyayaratna, with his own comm. Tātparya-vivaraṇa. Calcutta 1866. (c) ed. Vamanacharya Jhalakikar with his own Bāla-bodhinī comm. Bombay

¹ This has been shown by Sukthankar in ZDMG, Ixvi, p. 477f, referred to above.

² For a discussion of the various topics covered by the work see S. K. De, Some Problems, pp. 108-130.

Skt. Series 1889, 1901, 1917. (d) with a comm. by Harishankar Sarma Maithila, ed. D. R. Sastri, Chowkhamba Skt. Series, Benares 1926. (e) with Budha-manorañjanī Mallāri Laksmana Sastri, Madras 1891. comm. of Ādarśa comm. of Text with old comm. (a) With Maheśvara Nyāyālamkāra, ed. Jivananda Vidyasagar Calcutta 1876 (the same, ed. Calcutta Skt. Ser. 1936). (b) With the comm. of Kamalākara Bhatta, ed. Papa Sastri, Benares 1866. (c) With I'radīpa of Govinda Thakkura and Prabhā of Vaidyanātha Tatsat, ed. Nir. Sag. Press. Bombay 1891, 1912. (d) With Pradipa and Uddyota of Nāgojī Bhatta (ch, 1 ii, vii and x). ed. D. T. Chandorkar, Poona 1896, 1893, 1915. (e) With Pradipa in Pandit xxiii, 1888 91. (f) With Pradipa and Uddyota (complete), ed V. S. Abhyankar, Anandasrama Press 1911. (g) With Pradīpu, Uddyota, Prabhā, Samketa (of Rucaka) and Būlacittanurañjani of Narahari Sarasvtitirtha (ch. i. ii, iii, and x), ed. S. S. Sukthankar, Bombay 1933, 1941. (h) With Sāhityakaumudi of Baladeva Vidyabhūşana, ed. Nir. Sag. Press, Bombay 1897. (1) With the Samketa of Manikyacandra. ed. V. S. Abhyankar, Anandasrama Press, Poona 1921; ed. R. Shama Sastry, Mysore 1922. (1) With the Dīpika of Candidasa, ed. Sivaprasad Bhattacharya, Sarasvati Bhavana Texts. Benares 1933. (k) With Sampradayaprakāśinī of Śrīvidyā-cakravartın and Sāhitya-cūdāmaņi of Lauhitya Bhatta Gopāla, ed. H. Harihara Sastri, Trivandrum Skt. Series, in 2 vols., 1926, 1930. (1) With Sudhāsāgara of Bhīmasena Dīksita, ed. Narayan Sastri Khiste, Chowkhamba Skt, Series, Benares 1927. (m) With Samketa of Rucaka, ed. Sivaprasad Bhattacharya in Calcutta Oriental Journal 11, 1935; (n) With Viveka of Śridhara, ed. Sivaprasad Bhattacharya, Sanskrit College, Calcutta 1959, pt. i (ch. i-iv).

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1925. (b) into English by Pandurang P. Joshi (ch. i. ii. and x). Bombay 1913.

Our references are to the pages or by Kārikās of BSS ed. of Jhalakikar 1917.

The commentaries are discussed and enumerated in detail below.

b. \$abda-vyāpāra-paricaya

Edition. By M. R. Telang, N. S. P. Bombay 1916. The work is also called Sabda-vyāpāra-vicāra in a BORI MS noticed in Cat, xii, p. 343-44.

THE COMMENTATORS ON MAMMATA

(1)

There is hardly any other technical work in Sanskrit which has been so much commented upon as the Kāvya-prakāśa, and no less than seventy different commentaries and glosses will be found noticed in the various reports, catalogues and journals relating to Sanskrit MSS. They count as their authors not only independent and notable writers on Poetics like Ruyyaka and Viśvanātha, but also men having other literary interests, like the Naiyāyika Jagadīśa and Narasimha Thakkura, the grammarian Nāgojī Bhatta, the Mīmāmsaka Kamalākara Bhaţţa, the Vaişnava Baladeva Vidyābhūşana, as well as the Tantrika Gokulanatha. Very few of these commentaries have yet been printed. We mention here the more important and better known of these writers, noting their dates when known and supplying whatever information we can gather about them.

Rājānaka Ruyyaka or Rucaka

His commentary is called Samketa. He is identical with Ruyyaka (q. v.), author of the Alamkara-sarvasva; middle of the 12th century.

Ed. Sivaprasad Bhattacharya in Calcutta Oriental Journal

ii, 1935; also partly (on i, ii, iii and x) ed. S. S. Sukthankar, Bombay 1933, 1941.

Māṇikyacandra

His commentary is also called Somketa. It is dated in Samvat 1216=1159-60 A.D. Manikyacandra was a Jaina author of Gujarat, who belonged to the Kotikagana, Vajra-śākhā, Rājagaccha. The concluding verses of his commentary trace his spiritual genealogy to Śīlabhadra, after whom came in succession Bharateśvara. Vairasvāmin (Vīra^o), Nemicandra and Sāgarendu. Our author states that he was a pupil of Nemicandra, as well as of his successor Sagarendu, who is identified by Peterson² with the Sagarendu who wrote out in the Samvat 1252 (=1196 A. D.) at Pattana the first copy of the Amamasvāmi-carita³ Our Mānikyacandra seems to be identical with Mānikyacandra, author of Pārśvanātha-carita, which is said to have been completed on the Dewali of Samvat 1276(=1220 A.D.) in Devakūpa (Divbandar) by the sea (v. 36). In it the author gives a spiritual genealogy, traced up to Pradyumna Sūri and corresponding exactly to that given in the 'Samketa'. Manikya also appears to have written a Nalāyaņa or Kubera-purānas. Mānikyacandra, mentioned in Merutunga's Prabandhacintāmani as having flourished under Jayasimha of Gujarat, seems to be a different person.6

Edition with the text. (i) By Vasudeva Abhyankar, Anandasrama Press, Poona 1921; (ii) by R. Sharma Sastry, Mysore 1922.

- 1 Peterson iii, extr. p. 322, where the verse giving the date is incomplete, but it is given in full in Jhalakikara's introd. to $K\bar{a}v$. prak. p. 22.
 - 2 iv, p. cxxviii. 3 iii, App. p. 98.
- 4 See extract in Peterson iii, App. p. 157-63; also vi, p. xei. The verse sat-tarkī-lalanā-vilāsa°, describing his preceptor Nemicandra, occurs in Pārsvanātha-carita also, as in his "Samketa. See extracts in Peterson iii, pp. 160 and 321.

 5 Peterson iii, App. p 357.
- 6 For a discussion of Māṇikyacandra's date, see R. C. Parikh's ed. of Someśvara's comm. pp. 12-13.

Nuraharı called Sarasvatī-tīrtha

His commentary is called Bāla-cittānurañjanī. He also refers to two works, Smrti-darpaṇa and Tarka-ratna (with its Dīpikā commentary), written by himself. Aufrecht notes that Narahari is also the author of a commentary on the Megha-dūta, of which there is a copy in the Cambridge University Library; and Stein notes (p.67) a Kumārasaṃbhava-tīkā by Sarasvatītīrtha. His commentary on Mammaṭa states that he was born in Saṃvat 1298=1241-42 A.D., in Tribhuvanagiri in the Andhra country. He traces his own genealogy to Rāmeśvara of Vatsa-gotra, and describes himself as son of Mallinātha and Nāgammā and granson of Narasiṃha, son of Rāmeśvara. He had a brother named Nārāyaṇa. When he became an ascetic, he took the name of Sarasvatītīrtha and composed his commentary at Benares¹.

Edition. A part only (on i, ii, iii and x) in S. S. Sukthankar's edition of Kāvya prak. mentioned above, Bombay 1933, 1941; extract from MSS in Peterson i, 74 and *IOC* iii, pp. 325f.

Jayanta Bhatta

His commentary is called "Dīpikā or Jayani He gives its date as Saṃvat 1350=1294 A.D. He calls himself son of Bharadvāja who was the family-priest (purohita) to the chief minister of Śārṅgadeva of Gujarat, the third Vāghelā sovereign who ruled at Paṭṭana during 1277-1297². Jayanta is quoted by Paramānanda Cakravartin and Ratnakaṇṭha (q.v.), and the latter states that his own commentary was based on the Jayantī. Our Jayanta Bhaṭṭa must be distinguished from Bhaṭṭa Jayanta or Jayantaka, father of Abhinanda the author of the Kādambarī-kathā-sāra (ed. Kāvyamālā 11, 1888), who is an earlier author quoted by Abhinavagupta (p. 142) and who lived probably in the 9th century.

Extract in Bhandarkar Rep. 1883-84, App. 326.

- 1 Peterson i, pp. 25t, 74.
- 2 Bhandarkar Rep. 1883-84 pp. 17-18; Peterson 11, pp. 17, 20.

Someśvara

His commentary is called Kāvyādarśa¹ (also Samketa). He describes himself as son of Bhatta Devaka of Bharadvāja-gotra. Jhalakikara thinks that he was a native of Kanauj from his decided partiality for that country. But his reference to the Pratyabhijñā School of Kashmir might indicate that he was Kashmirian. Peterson² and following him Aufrecht³, identify him with Someśvara, author of Kīrti-kaumudī and Surathotsava, and place him in the first half of the 13th century. But this is doubtful, because this Someśvara is known as son of Kumāra. R.C. Parikh would assign the commentary to a period between 1150 and 1160 A.D. Our Someśvara cites Bhāmaha, Rudraţa, Mukula, Bhaţţa Nāyaka. Bhatta Tauta, Kuntaka (quoted pp. 135, 152, 302), Vakroktijīvita-kāra (p. 36), Ācārya Bhartrmitra (p. 16), Candrikā-kāra (p. 55) and Yāyāvarīya (p. 224). He is cited in his turn by a very late commentator Kamalākara4.

Ed, R. C. Parikh in 2 vols. (with the text), Rajasthan. Pracya Vidya Pratisthan, Jodhpur 1959.

Vācaspati Misra

Nothing is known of him or his commentary, but he is cited by Caṇḍīdāsa (as prācīna p. 131), by Viśvanātha on Mammaṭa, and by Bhīmasena. He is to be distinguished from Vācaspati Miśra, author of the Bhāmatī, who is probably older than Mammaṭa; for in the list he gives of his own works at the end of the Bhāmatī, he does not refer to any commentary on Mammaṭa. Sivaprasad Bhattacharya (JOI Baroda, iii pp. 359-63) states that Vācaspati Misra belenged to Mithila and lived near about 1200 A.D. But our Vācaspati

¹ The two entries Kāvyaprakāśa-jīkā and Kāvyāduru in Autrecht i 737b should be one, as both refer to this comm.

² v, pp. lxxxiv 3 i, 102a, 737b.

⁴ In the Bhau Daji collection (see Cat. of BRAS p. 451 a MS of Someśvara's comm. states that it was copied from another MS dated in Samvat 1283. Hence the comm. appears to be older than 1227 A.D.

is probably not the Maithili legist who wrote $\bar{A}c\bar{a}ra$ -cintāmaņi, $Viv\bar{a}da$ -cintāmaņi and other works (see Aufrecht i. 559-60).

Śrīdhara

With the title Sāṃdhi-vigrahika, cited by Caṇḍīdāsa (pp. 29, 59, 62, 117), and by Viśvanātha on Mammaṭa. Śrīdhara's commentary is called °Viveka. A MS the Viveka was copied in Mithila in 1405 A. D. (Sastri, Cat. ASB MSS vi, p. cclxxi). Śrīdhara's date would be about first quarter of the 13th century A D. As in the colophon to this MS the author is described as Tarkācārya Thakkura, he probably belonged to Mithila.

Edition. By Sivaprasad Bhattacharya, Part i, ch. i-iv. Sanskrit College, Calcutta 1959.

Candīdāsa

His commentary, called "Dīpikā, was written at the instance of his friend Lakşmaṇa Bhaṭṭa. The India Office MS of his work is written in Bengali characters, and he is cited mostly by Oriya, Maithili and Benares writers (e.g. Govinda in his "Pradīpa pp. 24, 36, 202, 274, Narasiṃha Thakkura, Kamalākara, Vaidyanātha in his "Udāharaṇa-candrikā, Nāgojī Bhaṭṭa in his "Prabhā, and Viśveśvara in his Alaṃkāra-kaustubha pp. 125, 166). He is not identical with Caṇḍīdāsa, the younger brother of the grand-father of Viśvanātha, author of the Sāhitya-darpaṇa. He appears to have flourished before or about 1300 A.D. He is also cited by Viśvanātha, son of Trimaladeva (q. v.), in a Kashmirian MS dated 1602 A.D. Caṇḍīdāsa mentions a Dhvani-siddhānta-grantha by himself. He also quotes a work

1 See H. P. Sastri, Cat. ASB MSS, vi, p. cclxvi, for some curious information of Caṇḍīdāsa, author of Dīpikā. He belonged to Bengal (born in the Mukha-kula). The family lived at Ketugrāma, four miles west of Uddhāraṇapura on the Ganges. According to Sastri, the period of Caṇḍīdāsa's literary activity was in the middle of the 15th century or earlier.—The other Caṇḍīdāsa belonged to Orissa.

called Sāhitya-hṛdaya-darpaṇa. which may be Bhaṭṭa Nāyaka's lost Hṛdaya-darpaṇa.

Edition. By Sivaprasad Bhattacharya, Sarasvati Bhavan Texts, Benares 1933. Extract in *IOC* iii, 1141/491 (p. 320).

Viśvanātha

Author of the commentary ${}^{\circ}Darpaṇa$. He is identical with Viśvanātha (q, v), author of the $S\bar{a}hitya-darpaṇa$, which is referred to in this commentary as his own. First half of the 14th century.

Extract in Jhalakikara's introd.

Bhatta Gopāla

Known as Lauhitya Bhaṭṭa Gopāla Sūri The name of his commentary is Sāhitya cūḍāmaṇi, which is cited several times in Kāma-dhenu on Vāmana (ed. Benares, pp. 4, 8, 33). If he is the same as Gopāla Bhaṭṭa cited by Kumārasvāmin (p 93), he should be earlier than the 15th century. K. P. Trivedi however, thinks that this Gopāla Bhaṭṭa of Kumārasvāmin is the same as wrote a comm. or Rasa-mañjarī. He will be identical, thus, with Gopāla Bhaṭṭa, son of Harivaṃśa Bhaṭṭa Drāvida, who wrote commentaries on Rudra's Śṛṅgāratilaka (p. 95 above) and Bhānudatta's Rasa-mañjarī (q. v.)

Edition. By R. Harihara Sastri and K. Sambasiva Sastri, 2 vols. Trivandrum Skt. Series 1926, 1930.

Bhāskara

Wrote Sāhitya-dīpikā commentary. He is cited by Śrīvatsalānchana, Govinda Thakkura (p. 21), Ravi (Peterson iii, p. 20). Narasimha Thakkura, Bhīmasena, and Ratnakantha (Peterson ii, p. 17). Narasimha calls him Lāṭa Bhāskara Miśra. He is earlier than the end of the 15th century, being cited by Govinda (Kāvya-pradīpa pp. 25, 204, 308, 329). The commentary is also called Kāvyālamkāra-rahasya nibandha.

Extract in Mitra 1681.

Paramānanda Cakravartin

His commentary is entitled Vistārikā. He refers to Miśra, Dīpikākrt (Jayanta Bhatta?) and Viśvanātha; and he must be later than Vidyanatha, whose Prataparudriya is cited by him. He is himself cited by Kamalakara, Narasimha Thakkura, Vaidyanātha (Udāharana canº), Nāgojī Bhatta, Ananda and Ratnakantha. The carliest citation is probably by Prabhākara Bhatta in his Rasa-pradīpa (p. 20) in 1583 A.D. Probab ly a Naiyāyika of Bengal. He mentions his guru Īśāna Nyāyācarya and appears to refer in a punning verse to the Tattvacintāmaņi of Gangeśopādhyāya. Jhalakikara thinks that the cakravarti-lukşana, found in the fourteen gādādharī lakşanas, was formulated by him. Paramananda, from his citations, cannot be earlier than the second half of the 14th century: and he probably flourished before the 16th century², at the end of which Gadadhara flourished. He must be distinguished from Śrividyā-Cakravartin, apparently a South Indian writer, who commented on Ruyyaka (q. v.) as well as on Mammaja, and who is also cited under the common designation of Cakra-Paramānanda also wrote a commentary on vartin. Naisadha (IOC vii p. 1438).

Extract in Peterson ii pp. 108-9. H. P. Sastri, Cat. ASB 4SS, vi. no. 4831/2492.

Śrividyā-Cakravartin

His commentary, entitled Sampradāya-prakāśinī refers to a commentary by himself on Ruyyaka. See under Ruyyaka for futher information on this commentator.

Edition. Trivandrum Skt. Series 1926, 1930, along with the comm. of Bhatta Gopāla mentioned above.

¹ andhā doṣāndhakāreşu ke vā na syur vipaścitaḥ | nāhaṃ tu dṛṣṭi-vikalo dhrtaś cintāmaniḥ sadā

² H. P Sastri (Catalogue ASB, vi, p. cclxix) states Paramananda flourished before Kamalakara Bhatta (beginning of the 17th century) who cites from his work, as we have noted above.

Govinda Thakkura

His well-known commentary is called "Pradīpa". Govinda also wrote an "Udāharana-dīpikā, apparently the same as "Sloka-dīpikā 2 in Stein (pp xxviii 60, 269), cited by Nāgojī Bhatta. This is supplementary to the larger exegetical work, being a commentary on the illustrative verses of the text. The "Prudipa has been commented on by Vaidyanatha Tatsat (°Prabhā and Udāharaņa-candrikā) and Nāgojī Bhatta (°Uddyota). Govinda was a native of Mithila, born in the family of Ravikara, eldest son of Keśava and Sonodevi, elder brother of poet Śrī-harşa who is not, however, as Peterson supposes, the author of the Naisadha⁵. In addition to this information about himself. Govinda tells us that he learnt $k\bar{a}v_{\lambda}a$ and sāhitya from his elder step brother Rucikara. His exact date is not known, but Govinda refers to Viśvanātha as arvācīna, quoting the latter's criticism of Mammata's definition poetry, as well as the latter's own definition of the same, without actually naming him or his Sahitya-darpana. Govinda, therefore, is probably later than the middle of the 14th century. On the other hand, he is earlier than the last quarter of the 16th century, being quoted in Prabhakara's Rusa-pradīpa which was composed in 1583 A.D. Narasimha Thakkura, who flourished later, but not much later, than 1612 A.D. (having himself quoted Kamalakara), is supposed, on the authority of the family genealogy, to be fifth in descent from

I The full name of the commentary is Kāvyaprakāśa-pradīpa, simplified generally as Kāvya-pradīpa; so Peterson's speculation on the name (1, 27) is idle trifling.

² The second verse of this work refers to his $K\bar{a}v_1a$ -prudipa.

³ His brother's verse is cited in ch. x (p. 355) as mad-bhratuh śrīharṣusya, but the Naisadha is cited by name in the same chapter (p. 351) with iti naiṣadha-darśanāt. He laments, in one of the concluding verses, the death of this brother Śrī-harṣa, in which however he does not mention him, as he could have done, as the poet of the Naisadha.

Govinda, This will roughly place Govinda towards the end of the 15th century¹.

Edition: (1) In Pandit vols. x-xiii, 1888-89, by Rama Sastri Bhagavatacharya. (2) With comm. of Vaidyanātha, called "Prabhā, in Kāvyamālā 24, NSP, Bombay 1891, 1912 (our references are to the ed. of 1912). (3) With "Uddyota in Anandasrama Series 1911. (4) With "Uddyota (ch. i, ii, vii, x) by Chandorkar, Poona 1889.

Jayarāma Nyāya-pañcānana

His commentary is called "Tilaka or Jayarāmī The commentary called Rahasya-dīpikā by Jayarāma, entered in some catalogues, appears to be an alternative name. He seems to be identical with the author of the Nyāya-siddhānta-mālā, the Padartha-manimala, and of commentaries on the Nyayakusumānjali and on the Tattvacintāmani-dīdhiti, which works indicate that he was a Naiyayika. He is described as pupil of Rāmacandra (or Rāmabhadra) Bhattācārya Sārvabhauma and guru of Janārdana Vyāsa. He is cited by Śrīvatsalanchana and Bhimasena, but the only writer who appears to quote him extensively is Viśveśvara (as Nyāyapañcānana) in his Alam. kaus. pp. 11, 23, 106, 127, 161, 162, 172, 263, 327. Jayarāma was certainly later than Raghunātha Śiromaņi (beginning of the 16th century), on whose Tattva-cintāmaņidīdhiti he commented, but earlier than the beginning of the 18th century, the date of Bhimasena. A more precise dating is possible because the date of Jayarama's Nyaya-siddhanta $m\bar{a}l\bar{a}$ is given as Samvat 1750 (=1694 A.D.). He is said to have been patronised by Raja Ramakrsna of Krishnagar (Bengal). See S. C. Vidyabhusan, Indian Logic, Calcutta 1921, pp.477f.

Extract in Peterson ii, p. 107 and M1tra 1447.

¹ See introd. to N. S. P. ed of the *Pradipa*; also the *Pandit* xin, p. 74f.

Śrīvatsalānchana Bhattācārya and Subuddhi Miśra

Śrīvatsa's commentary is called Sāra bodhinī. It is mentioned by Hall² and attributed to "Maheśvara, otherwise called Śrīvatsalānchana." Maheśvara or Māheśvara appears to be another name of Subuddhi Miśra who, Aufrecht notes.3 wrote a commentary on Vāmana called Sāhitya-sarvasva; but Subuddhi also appears to be cited as a commentator on Mammata by Narasimha Thakkura, Vaidyanātha (Udāharanacan°), Bhīmasena and Ratnakantha. The two are probably different persons, as Bhimasena and Ratnakantha cite separately both Śrīvatsa and Subuddhi Miśra. Śrīvatsa is also the author of an independent work called Kāvya-parīksā4. which deals in five Ullasas with the general characteristics of poetry and follows in the main the teachings of Mammata. This work may not be identical with Tattva-pariksā (or more fully Sabdartha-Tattva-parīkṣā) by Subuddhi Miśra (perhaps the name of his commentary on Mammata, cited by Ratnakantha and entered by Kielhorn in Central Prov. Cat. p. 100)

- 1 Also called Srīvatsa-sarman, Srīvatsa-varman or simply Vatsa-varman.
 - 2 introd. Vāsavadattā p. 54.
- 3 Aufrecht's description (ABod 208a; IOC, iii, 1130/566, p 321) of Subuddhi-miśra as Subuddhimiśra-maheśvara, as well as Hall's statement, makes one think that the term is not maheśvara but māheśvara, which is often, as in the cases of Abhinavagupta and Vidyādhara, applied as an appellation of a Saiva writer. This is thus a surname of both writers, which might have led to their doubtful identification.
- 4 Aufrecht 1. 778b, 1i. 19b; 10C, iii, p, 342 (MS dated 1550 A.D.). The five chapters of this work correspond in the following way to those of Mammata. (i) Sabdārtha-nirnaya = M 1-3 (ii) Kāvya-bheda = M 4-5 (ii) doṣa-nirṇaya = M 7 (iv) Guna-nirūpaṇa = M 8-9 (v) Alaṃkāra = M 10. With a few exceptions it gives the Kārikās as well as the illustrations of Mammata with appropriate observations on them. It is thus in effect a commentary on portions of Mammata's work. It has been printed by the Mithila Institute, Darbhanga 1956.
- 5 See Peterson ii, p. 17 where both Subuddh's comm. and Tattvapariksā are mentioned.

It is mentioned as a Comm. on Kav. pr. in H. P. Sastri Cat. ASB MSS, vi, no. 4839/3515, pp. 417-18. Two other works, Kāvyāmṛta¹ and Rāmodaya-nāṭaka, are also ascribed to Śrīvatsa. A work called Śrddhānta ratna-mālā (a refutation of the Dvaita view of Vedānta) is noticed in Madras Cat. Trm I, B. 362, and is said to have been composed by Śrīvatsalānchana Śarman, son of Viṣṇudhvajācārya. As Śrīvatsa cites Vidyānātha, he cannot be earlier than the 14th century; on the other hand, he is earlier than the 17th century, having been quoted by Kamalākara (1612 A.D.) and Jagannātha (p. 39). It appears also that the Sāra-bodhinī in many places expands or condenses Paramānanda's Vistārīkā. The colophon to the BORI MS of Sūra-bodhinī (no. 107, Cat. xii p. 115) informs us that Śrīvatsalānchana Bhaṭṭācārya's father was Śrīviṣṇu Bhaṭṭācārya Cakravartin.

MSS. Extract in Madras Catalegue xxii, 12827; also BORI MS Cat. xii, no. 54, pp. 56-57 (extract) of Kāvya-parīkṣā.

Paṇḍitarāja

This commentator, cited by Ratnakantha, is probably identical with Raghunandana Rāya, disciple of the legist Maheśa Inakkura (See Jha's transl. of Kāv. prak, introd. p. ix). He should not be confounded with Jagannātha Paņditarāja.

Stein pp. 60, 269, extract given MS no. 1164 (Aufrecht i. 19a) Stein's MS of this work goes up to *Ullāsa* ii only and quotes no authorities except the Miśras and Pratyabhijñākāra. Jha's MS appears to have been copied in 1637 A.D.

Ravi and Ratnapāņi

Ravi is the author of the *Madhumatī* commentary, the last verse of which tells us that he had a beloved daughter named Madhumatī, after whom the commentary was baptised. He also informs us that he was son of Gaurī and Manodhara.

alias Ratnapāņi, and grandson of Acyuta, who was a minister of Sivasimha or Sivasiddha of Mithila (about the middle of the 15th century. IOC iv p. 875f). Ratnapāņi or Manodhara also wrote a commentary or Mammaṭa, called Kāvya-darpaṇa¹, which is cited by his son and on which the lauer's commentary itself seems to have been based. The father and the son are cited by Bhīmasena, while Kamalākara and Narasimha cite the Madhumatīkāra.

Extract in Peterson iii, p 332f; Madras Cat. xxii, nos. 12822-23.

Mahesvara

With the title Nyāyālaṃkāra. His commentary is called "Ādarša, or "Bhāvārtha-cintāmaṇi. He is a Bengal writer, who also composed a commentary on the Dāyabhāga. As he is cited by Vaidyānātha he should be placed before the middle of the 17th century, and it is probable that he flourished about the commencement of that century.

Edition. By Jivananda Vidyasagar, Calcutta 1876; also ed. Calcutta Skt. Series 1936.

Kamalākara Bhatta

He is better known as a legist, and wrote a large number of works on Smṛti and Mīmāṃśā. He was a Mahratta Brahman of Benares, son of Rāmakṛṣṇa Bhaṭṭa and Umā, younger brother of Dizakara Bhaṭṭa, and grandson of Nārāyaṇa Bhaṭṭa and great-grandson of Rāmeśvara Bhaṭṭa², Ananta Bhaṭṭa, who wrote the Rāma-kalpadruma at the request of Gariba

- 1 See Peterson iii, App. p. 332 where extract is given (esp. sl. 5), A MS of this work, called Kāvya-darpaņa or Kāvyaprakāśa-darpana is noticed in Mitra 3169, and the author's name given as Manodhara.
- 2 For Kamalākara's place in the Bhatta family of Benares, see the pedigree given in V. N. Mandlik's ed. of Vyavahāra-mayūkha p. lxxvi. See also Bhandarkar, Rep. 1883-84, pp. 50-1. He is also the author of numerous works on Mīmāṃsā and Smṛti, some of which he mentions at the end of his comm. (see Aufrecht i. 80). It is said that his descendants still live in Benares.

dāsa, minister of Rājā Rājasimha, was his son. Kamalākara's date is known from the fact that he dates his well known Nirṇaya-sindhu in Samvat 1668=1612 AD. He also wrote a poem called Rāma-kautuka in 4 cantos.

Edition. By Papa Sastri, Benares 1866. This comm. is described with extract in *IOC* in, no. 1143/361, p. 327.

Rājānaka Ānanda

His commentary is called "Nidarsana or Sitikantha-vibodhana 1. Hall (Vāsavadattā p. 16) is mistaken in attributing this work to Sitikantha and taking it as dedicated to Ananda. The colophon, as well as the first verse², of this commentary accounts probably for Hall's mistake; but the author himself explains that the commentary is so named from the fact that an attempt is made in it to interpret Mammata's text as having, besides its ālamkārika meaning, a mystical sense relating to Sitikantha or Siva. Mammata himself might have been a Kashmirian Saiva; but this leaves no doubt that Ananda was one, although it is doubtful whether the text lends itself to such an interpretation. The date is given in the colophon as 1665 A.D., although Hall thinks that this is the date in which the MS of the work was copied. Stein remarks: "Ananda, who composed his commentary in 1665 A.D. is still well remembered in the tradition of Kashmirian Pandits as the contemporary and friend of Rajanaka Ratnakantha",

- 1 The colophon, as quoted by Buhler (Kashmir Rep. p. 69 fn), says:
 111 Srīmad-rājānakānvaya-tılakena rājānakānandakena viracitām kāvyaprakāsa-nidarsanam. But elsewhere in the Jammu MS off Stein, it says:
 111 Srī-kāvya-darsane sitikantha-vibodhane kāvyoddesa-darsanam
 prathamam, col. to ch. i. It seems that the real name of the comm.
 118 is Nidarsana as Peterson thinks, Sitikantha-vibodhana being an
 129 alternative or descriptive name arising from the second meaning relating
 120 to Sitikantha or Siva which the commentary finds in the text.
- 2 praņamya śāradām kāvya-prakāśo bodha-siddhaye | padārtha-vivṛti-dvārā śitikanthasya darśyate. Jhalakikara reads: sva-śişyebhyah pradarśyate, but remarks: atra śitikanthasya darśyate iti pātho vivaraņa-kārair angīkṛtaḥ,
 - 3 Jammu Cat p. xxvii fn. The date is given in Kali era 4766.

one of whose known dates is 1648 A.D. Ananda, therefore, may be assigned to the second and third quarters of the 17th century. Ananda also appears to have written a commentary on the Naisadha.

Extract in Peterson (i. 74); also in Stein, Jammu Catalogue p. xxvii.

Rājānaka Ratnakantha

His commentary is called Sāra-samuccaya which, as its title indicates and the author confesses, was composed by a compilation from "the principal commentaries of Jayanta and others." He cites, therefore, some of the well-known commentaries before his time. 1 among which we find the Śāhitya-dīpikā (of Bhāskara), Sāra-bodhinī (of Śrīvatsa), the commentaries of Subuddhi Miśra and Panditarāja, the Vistārikā (of Paramānanda), the Pradīpa (of Govinda), and two other works Tattva-parīksā and Rasa-ratna-dīpikā. This is the same Ratnakantha as copied the codex archetypus of the Rāja-taranginī, mentioned by Stein (introd. p. vii f) and also transcribed MSS of the "Samketa of Ruyyaka in 1648, of Rayamukuta's commentary on Amara in 1655, and of Trilocanadasa's Kātantra-panjikā in 1673 A.D. He is identical with Ratnakantha, who was the son of Samkarakantha and grandson of Ananta-kavı of the Dhaumyayana family and who wrote a Stuti-kusumānjali-tīkā (called Sisya-hitā) in 1681 A.D., and a Yudhişthira-vijaya-kāvya-tīkā in 1672 A.D. (Aufrecht i. 489b; Stein, loc. cit). These dates range from 1648 to 1681 A.D., during which apparently the literary activity of Ratnakantha falls

Extract in Peterson, Report ii, p. 129 (also ii, 16f), which gives a list of authors quoted; BORI MS no. 113 (Cat. xii, p. 121).

Narasimha Thakkura

His commentary is called Narasiniha manīşā. He belonged to the same family as Govinda Thakkura and was fifth in

¹ The list of authors cited by him is given in Peterson, Report it p. 17f.

descent from him. The latest writer he cites seems to be the Madhumatī-kāra (Ravi) and Kamalākara, and he is cited in his turn by Bhīmasena with the title nyāya-vidyā-vāgīśa. Between 1620-1700 A.D.

MSS. Aufrecht i. 101b, ii. 19b.

Vaidyanātha Tatsat

He wrote two commentaries: (1) the *Prabhā on the *Pradīpa of Govinda and (2) the "Udāharana-candrikā on the illustrative verses of the Kāvya-prakāśa. The date of the latter work is given in the concluding verse as Samvat 1740=1684 A D.1 He also wrote Alamkāra-candrīkā commentary on Appayya's Kavalayānanda (q. v.). He is different from Vaidyanātha, the Maithili grammarian, son of Mahadeva and Venī and pupil of Nāgojī Bhatta; for our Vaidyanātha is known as son of Rāmacandra (or Rāmabuddha) Bhatta and grandson of Vitthala Bhatta of the Tatsat family, and is referred to by Nagoji himself. Our Vaidyanātha cites Candīdāsa. Subuddhi Miśra, the Dīpikākrt (Govinda's Udāharaņa-dīpikā), Cakravartin and Mahesa, and is cited by Bhīmasena. He is probably not the same as Vaidyanātha Pāyagunda who wrote commentaries on the Candraloka of Jayadeva and the Paribhasendu-śekhara of Nāgojī (ed. Anandasrama, Poona 1913).

Edition. *Prabhā*, ed. with *Pradīpa* by Durgaprasad and K. P. Parab, NSP, Bombay 1891, 1912 (our references are to the ed. of 1912).

Udāharaṇa-candrikā. Extract in Peterson Report ii, p. 108, in SCC vii, 54, in IOC iii, 1151/943b.

Bhīmasena Dīksita

His commentary is called Sudhā-sāgara or Sudhodadhi². It is dated in Samvat 1779=1723 A.D.³ He was a Kanauj

¹ The date is given in the IOC MSS Cat. iii, p. 322, no. 1151.

² The form Sukhodadhi given in Peterson's extract (i, p. 94) should be Sudhodadhi.

3 Peterson Report i, p. 94.

Brahman who describes himself as son of Sivānanda and grandson of Muralīdhara; his genealogy being given thus: Gaṅgādāsa—Vīreśvara— Muralīdhara— Sivānanda— Bhīmasena. He is also the author of two independent works, called Alaṃkāra-sāroddhāra and Kuvalayānanda-khaṇḍana¹, the latter apparently directed against Appayya's work of the same name, and both referred to in his commentary on Mammaṭa. The last work was composed at Jodhpur while Ajitasiṃha (1680-1725 AD.) was still reigning. Bhīmasena also wrote a commentary on the Ratnāvalī². He cites a large number of commentators, such as Caṇḍīdāsa, Bhāskara, Acyuta, Ratnapāṇi, Ravi, Jayarāma Pañcānana, Vācasapati Miśra, Cakravartin, Ruci Miśra, Murāri Miśra, Pakṣadhara Upādhyāya, Devanātha Tarkapañcānana, Śrīvatsalāñchana, Govinda and Narasımha Ţhakkura, Maheśa or Maheśvara, and Vaidyanātha.

Edition. By Narayan Sastri Khiste in Chowkhamba Sansk. Ser. Benares 1927. Extract in Peterson i, p. 94 and in Jhala-kikara's ed. of $K\bar{a}v$. prak.

Baladeva Vidyābhūşaņa

Know simply as Vidyābhūṣaṇa. His work, dignified with the name of "a vrtti on Bharata's sūtra" (so he calls Mammaṭa's Kārīkās³), is named the Sāhitya-kaumudī, on which he himself writes a tippaṇa, called Krṣṇānandinī. It has the same arrangement and subject-matter as those of the Kāvya-prakāśa, but it adds an eleventh chapter on some extra Alaṃkāras of Śabda and Artha. A work called Kāvya-kustubha in 9 Prabhās is noticed and attributed to one Vidyābhūṣaṇa (in Stein pp. 59, 268) who appears to be a

I The work is also called Alamkāra-sāra-sthiti, a MS of which is noticed in Mitra 4084 (Aufrecht ii. 23a). A very incorrect and at places illegible MS of this work exists in the BORI (Cat. xii, no. 156, pp. 179-80, which gives a list of its citations). See also H. P. Sastri, Cat. ASE MSS, vi, no. 4895/3147, p. 456.

² Aufrecht i. 492.

³ See above pp. 152f.

Vaisnava and probably the same as our author (see pref. to Kāvya-mālā ed. of the Sāhitya-kaumudī and Aufrecht i 101a, ii. 19b, 193b, iii. 22b); for this work see below under Minor Writers. Baladeva was a pupil of Rādhādāmodara-dāsa (concluding verse of Sah. k. and its commentary) and Gopāladāsa (alias Rasikānanda, commentary on śl. 1), and the Guru of Uddhava-dāsa. He was a Vaisnava and follower of Caitanya, and wrote various Vaisnava works. Though belonging to Orissa he was a champion of the later phase of Bengal Vaişnavisın, and attempted a rapproachement between Madhvaism and Caitanyaism; see on this S K. De. Vaisnava Faith and Movement in Bengal, Calcutta 1942, pp. 11-12. Apart from his commentary mentioned above, his most notable works are Govinda-bhāsya on the Vedāntasūtra and Prameya-ratnāvalī. He is said to have been a contemporary of Jayasimha of Jaypur, who flourished in the beginning of the 18th century. Aufrecht notes that his commentary on the Utkalikā-vallarī was written in 1765 A.D. A pun in the first verse of his Sāhitya-kaumudī refers, as he himself explains in the tippana, to Gajapati Prataparudra of Utkala or Orissa.

Edition. With Kṛṣṇānandinī, ed. Sivadatta and K. P. Parab, Nir. Sag. Press, Bombay 1897. The Bharatu-sūtra-vṛtti in Peterson ii, 10 is the same work as this.

Nāgojī or Nāgeša Bhatta

He wrote two commentaries called Laghu- and Bṛhat-Uddyota on Pradīpa. Also author of a $^{\circ}Ud\bar{a}haraṇa-dīpik\bar{a}$ or $^{\circ}pradīpa$ on the illustrations in the text (Stein, pp. xxvii, 268). He belongs to the first quarter of the 18 h century. He also wrote a commentary on Jagannātha (q.v.), from whom he was removed by two generations, and other works. See below under Jagannātha.

Edition. "Uddyota, ed. with "Pradīpa in Anandasrama Series 1911; ed. with text and "Pradīpa (ch. i, ii, vii and x by Chandorkar, Poona 1889, 1915.

"Udāharaṇa-dīpikā, Aufrecht ii. 19b (extract in Stein pp. 268-69, called "Pradīpa).

(2)

We give below the names of the some of the less known commentators on Mammata (alphabetically):

- (1) Kalādhara. Wrote *Kārikāvali, which appears to be a synopsis of the Kārikās. KBod 501.
- (2) Kalyāņa Upādhyāya. Name of comm. unknown, mentioned by Jha in his introd. to his trans. of Kāv. prak. p. ix.
- (3) Kṛṣṇa Dvivedin. Comm. Madhura-rasā. Aufrecht i. 101b.
- (4) Kṛṣṇa Sarman. Rasa-prakāśa. HPS iii no. 58 (extract; ends with the 5th chapter); Cat. ASB MSS, vi, no. 4842/6581, pp. 419-20 (a fragment of only 20 leaves, containing the first and second chapters).
- (5) Kṛṣṇamitrācārya, son of Rāmanātha and grandson of Devīdatta: a Naiyāyıka, for whose works see Aufrecht i. 121b. "Tīkā. Aufrecht i. 101b.
- (6) Gadādhara Cakravartin Bhaṭṭācārya. "Tīkā. Mitra 1527; SCC vii 13. Gadādhara is well known for his commentary on Raghunātha Śiromaṇi's Tattvacintāmaṇi-dīdhiti, one of the standard works on Navya Nyāya of Bengal. He was a pupil of Harirāma Tarkālaṃkāra and flourished at the end of the 16th and beginning of the 17th century.
- (7) Guṇaratna Gaṇi. Comm. Sāra-dīpikā (BORI Cat. MSS xii, p. 112). The MS is dated Samvat 1890.
- (8) Gokulanātha Upādhyāya, the Maithili Smārta. "Tīkā, mentioned in Jha op. cit. p. ix. See chapter on Minor Writers below.
- (9) Gopīnātha. Comm. Sumano-manoharā. Auirecht i. 101b. He also wrote a comm. on Visvanātha's Sāhitya-darpaṇa (q.v.). End of the 17th century.
- (10) Jagadīśa Tarka-pañcānana Bhattācārya. Comm.

- *Rahasya-prakāśa. Aufrecht i. 101b (Mitra 1651). MS written by his pupil in Śaka 1579=1657 A.D. He is different from Jagadīśa Tarkālaṃkāra, the famous Naiyāyika who was a pupil of Bhavānanda and (Rāmabhadra) Sārvabhauma of Navadvipa (Bengal).
- (11) Janārdana Vibudha, pupil of Ananta. Comm. "Sloka dīpikā. Aufrecht i. 101b, ii. 19b (Stein 61, incomplete). He also wrote commentaries on the Raghu and Vṛtta-ratnākara. He should be distinguished from the better known Janārdara Vyāsa, son of Bābuji Vyāsa and grandson of Viṭṭhala Vyāsa and pupil of Jayarāma Nyāyapañcānana (see above p. 164).
- (12) Tiruvenkața, son of Cinnatimma and grandson of Tirumala-guru. A South Indian writer who quotes Bhațța Gopăla's commentary. Madras Trm. Cat. A 318.
- (13) Devanātha Tarkapancānana. Comm. Kavya-kaumudī written in Samvat 1717 (=1661). BORI MSS Cat. xii, p. 81. Described as son of Govinda. Cited by Kamalākara and Bhīmasena. Bharata Mallika on Bhaṭṭi x. 73 quotes one Devanātha. Our Devanātha appears to be a logician of Bengal who upheld the views of Mammaṭa against the adverse criticism of Viśvanātha. See Madras Trm II, C, 1570 for extracts, and II, A, 819. See Mitra 1447 where mention is made of an Ekaşaṣṭyalaṃkāra-prakāśa which quotes Devanātha and Jayarāma as its sources.
- (14) Narasimha Sūri, son of Timmaji Mantrin and grandson of Rangaprabhu. Comm. Rju-vṛtti on Kārikās only. Aufrecht ii. 19b; Madras Trm B 381.
- (15) Nāgarāja Keśava. Comm. Pada-vṛtti. Aufrecht i 101b.

- (16) Nārāyaṇa Dīkṣita, son of Raṅganātha Dīkṣita and brother of Bālakṛṣṇa. Raṅganātha's commentary on the Vikramorvaśī was finished in 1656 A. D. Hence the date of our author is the end of the 17th century. "Ţīkā. Aufrecht i. 101b (see also 292a: AFI p. 155)
- (17) Bhānucandra. "Tīkā. Aufrecht i. 101b. Also wrote a commentary on the Daśa-kumāra,
- (18) Bhavadeva, son of Kṛṣṇadeva of Mithila and pupil of Bhavadeva Thakkura. Comm. Līlā. Aufrecht ii 20a; Madras Cat. 12824-25 (extract). Also wrote a commentary on the Vedānta-sūtra (IOC 1428). According to the final verse in this commentary the author lived in the reign of Shah Jahan and composed his commentary at Patna in Saka 1571 = 1649 A. D,
- (19) Madhumatiganeśa. Comm. Kāvya-darpana, Aufrecht i. 102a.
- (20) Yajñeśvara Yajvan. Comm. °Vyākhyā. Madras Cat. 12821 (extract).
- (21) Raghudeva. Comm. *Kārikārtha-prakāśikā. Aufrecht ii. 20a (up to the end nearly of Ullāsa ii)
- (22) Ratneśvara. Name of Comm. unknown, but referred to by himself in his comm. on Bhoja (cf ABod 209a).
- (23) Rāghava. Wrote an Avacūri Ţippaṇa, mentioned in Jhalakikara p. 36.
- (24) Rājānanda. Comm. without a name. *Madras Cat.*12820 (extract); cf Aufrecht ii. 20a.
- (25) Rāmacandra. Wrote a Kāvyaprakāśa-sāra, which is apparently a summary exposition of the substance of the text. Aufrecht i. 102b.
- (26) Rāmanātha Vidyāvācaspati, a Bengal commentator who wrote the comm. *Rahasya-prakāśa.

 Aufrecht i 102a. His commentary on Bhavadeva's

- Samskāra-paddhati was composed in 1623 A.D. (see Aufrecht 1. 516a).
- (27) Rāmakṛṣṇa. Comm. Bhāvārtha or Kavi-nandinī (or "nandikā). Aufrecht i. 102a, ii. 20a: also ii. 16b.
- (28) Vijayānanda. Wrote a °Ţīkā. Deccan Coll. Cat. p. 44. The age of the MS is given as 1683 A.D.
- (29) Vidyāsāgara, apparently the title of some commentator. Cited by Śrīvatsalāñchana. One Vidyāsāgara wrote a Kalā-dīpikā-tīkā on Bhaṭṭi, and is cited by Bharata Mallika (on x. 73), and by Rāmanātha on Amara-kośa. S. P. Bhattacharya (introd. to ed. Śrīdhara's comm. p. xxx) is inclined to take this commentator on Mammaṭa as Puṇḍarīka Vidyāsāgara who flourished in the early decades of the 15th century. He is said to have written comm. also on Daṇḍin and Vāmana.
- (30) Veňkatācala Sūri, Comm. Subodhinī. Aufrecht i 102a. H. P. Sastri, Cat. ASB MSS, vi. no. 4837/, 8736, p. 415.
- (31) Šivanārāyaņa Dāsa Sarasvatīkaņthābharaņa, son of Durgādāsa. Comm. "Dīpikā. Weber i, no. 819; Aufrecht i. 102a. He wrote at the beginning of the 17th century. For his other works, see Aufrecht i. 649b.
- (32) Sivarāma Tripāthin, Comm. Vişamapadī. Kielhorn, Central Prov. Cat. p. 107. See below under Minor Writers for the author.
- (33) Siddhicandra Gaṇi, Kāvyaprakāša-khaṇḍana in ten Ullāsas, edited by Rasiklal C. Parikh from the Bharatiya Vidya Bhavan, Bombay 1953. The writer is a notable Jaina monk and author (b. 1587-88 A.D.) in the time of Akbar and Jahangir and a contemporary of Jagannātha. His method, as he himself tells us, is anuvāda-pūrvaka khaṇḍana, i.e. first exposition and then criticism,

although all his criticisms are not justified. Siddhicandra appears also to have written a Bṛhatī Tīkā on the Kāvya-prakāśa. While Hemacandra would accept Mammaṭa's work as the standard, Siddhicandra was perhaps one of the 'Navyas', like Jagannātha, who indicates an attempt to set up a new school of poetic theories. For information about the author and his works see Introd. to ed. mentioned.—MS entitled Kāvyaprakāśa-khaṇḍana or Kāvyāmṛta-taraṅgiṇī noticed by Mitra 2674 goes up to the 7th Ullāsa; it appears to be a different work.

Besides these, there are numerous commentaries, either anonymous or with the name of the author missing, some which are entered in Aufrecht i. 101b, 778b, ii. 20a, 193b. This illustrates the saying of Maheśvara, one of the commentators: kāvya-prakāśasya kṛtā gṛhe gṛhe/ṭīkā tathāpy eṣa tathaiva durgamaḥ!

CHAPTER VII

FROM RUYYAKA TO VIDYĀNĀTHA

RUYYAKA

(1)

Ruyyaka, who also bore the name of Rucaka¹ and had the Kashmirian title of Rājānaka prefixed to his name, was son of Rājānaka Tilaka² who, Jayaratha informs us (pp. 115, 124, 205), wrote a commentary or critique on Udbhaṭa called Udbhaṭa-viveka or Udbhaṭa-vicāra.

The Alamkāra-sarvasva, by which Ruyyaka is chiefly known, consists of two parts, viz. Sūtra and Vṛtti; but the question has been raised whether the authorship of the two parts should be attributed to the same writer. The Nirnay Sagar Press edition of the text, published under the above title, admits Ruyyaka's authorship of both the Sūtra and the Vitti, a view which is accepted by his earliest commentator

1 rajānaka-rucakāparanāmno'lamkārasarvasva-kṛtaḥ (kṛtih), col. to Pischel's ed of Nahrdaya-līlā; cf ed. of the same in Kāvyamālā Gucchaka v (1908), reading of MS kha. This name is given in some of the MSS of his larger work (e. g. col. to the N.S.P. and Trivandrum eds. of the text; in Mitra ix. p. 117), as well as by Kumārasvāmin (pp 393, 396, 425, 448). Appayya Dīkṣita (Citr. mīm. p. 72), Rāghava-bhaṭṭa on Śakuntalā (pp. 161, 179, 193), and Śrīvidyā-Cakravartin, one of Ruyyaka's commentators (Madras Cat. xii, p. 8609). Bühler (Kashmir Rep. no. 247, p. xvi) and Peterson (ii p. 13f) also found this name in connexion with Ruyyaka's Samketa comm. on Mammaṭa. That the form Ruyyaka is the more authentic is testified to by his pupil Mańkhaka (Śrīkantha-c. xxv. 30: see below)

2 rājānaka-tilakātmaja° col. to Pischel's ed. of the Sahṛdaya-līlā. Ruyyaka's father was thus, like himself, a writer on Poetics and a follower of Udbhaţa. See above p. 76-77. Tilaka is mentioned and quoted (one verse) by Someśvara in his comm. on Mammaţa (ed. Parikh. p. 295, on Ullāsa x. 106)

Jayaratha, who refers to the author as granthakṛt with respect to both the Sūtra and Vṛtti portions. The invocatory verse to the Vṛtti in this edition reads in the second line

nijālamkāra-sūtrānām vrttyā tatparyam ucyate

so that the Sūtra is avowedly referred to as his own by the Vrttikara. Some doubt, however, has been thrown on this view by the discovery of a different reading of this line in some of the South Indian MSS, which introduce a grave variant in the phrase nijālamkāra-sūtrānām by changing it into gurvalamkāra-sūtrānām. There is also, at the end of the Vrtti in these MSS an additional verse³, which gives the name of the Vrtti (and not of the text which is called Alamkāra-sūtra) as Alamkāra-sarvasva, and the name of the author of the Vitti as Mankhuka or Mankhaka, who is described as a sāmdhivigrahika to the king of Kashmir. This forms the reading of the text (based on three MSS). which is published in the Trivandrum Series, as well as of MSS noticed by Burnell,4 Winternitz5 and in the Madras Catalogue⁴. This view is supported by Samudrabandha, a South Indian commentator, who flourished at the end of 13th century and whose text is printed in the Trivandrum edition: for the Vrtti, the subject of his commentary, is known to him by the name of Alamkara sarvasva and its author as Mankhaka, while the original work of Ruyyaka is called Alamkāra-sūtra.

¹ pp. 19, 20, 55, 57, 67, 72, 83, 87 etc.

² Same reading in ABod 210a, where Ruppaka is å, mistake or a variant (Buhler op. cit. p. 68) for Ruyyaka; Mitra ix p. 117.—All the Jammu MSS have nijālamkāra.

³ iti mankhuko vitene kāsmīra-kşitipa-sāmdhivigrahikah / sukavimukhālamkāram tad idam alamkāra-sarvasvam / /

⁴ Tanjore Cat. p. 54a.

⁵ Cat. of South Ind. MSS in the RAS, p. 208; cf Jacob in JRAS, 1897, p. 283f.

⁶ xii, pp. 8606-7. The question is discussed at some length in Harichand Sastri, op. cit. p. 105f.

We are thus confronted with two distinct traditions, embodied in these two different views and prevailing in the North and South of India respectively, with regard to the authorship of the Vrtti, there being no dispute as to Ruyyaka's authorship of the Sūtra-text itself. So far as we can judge, the North Indian tradition, obtaining in Kashmir, to which place both Ruyyaka and Mahkhaka belonged, seems to be the authentic one; for the South Indian tradition is not uniform in this respect and does not always distinguish between the author of the Sūtra and the Vrtti respectively. Thus, Appayva Diksita, a noted South Indian writer, refers¹ to Ruyyaka or Rucaka as the author of the work as a whole, which is called the Alamkāra-sarvasva, attributing to him both the Sūtra and the Vrtti; and Appayya is in agreement, in this respect, with Mallinatha2, Kumarasvamin3, and Jagannātha. On the other hand, the testimony of Jayaratha, himself a Kashmirian, cannot be very well superseded by what the much later commentator Samudrabandha says in conformity to a tradition which itself is not unanimous. It is also significant that while Ruyyaka (and even Jayaratha) is quoted and discussed extensively by later writers on Poetics. Mankhaka is not cited as a writer on the subject except ence by Appayya in his Citra-mīmāmsā (p. 10).

(2)

This tradition of Mankhaka's collaboration with Ruyyaka would not perhaps have arisen, had not Mankhaka, as the

¹ Citr. mīm. p. 14, 15, 54, 72, 84, 90, 94, 98; Kuvalay. p. 41, 89, 92, 96, 184.

² Taralā pp. 21, 186, 187, 232, 237, 249, 261, 262, 266, 331, 332.

³ Ratnāpaṇa pp. 393 (=Alam. sar. vṛtti p. 58), 425 (=ibid, p. 133), 448 (=ibid, p. 144); p. 341 (=ibid, sūtra p. 20) p. 452 = (ibid, p. 156).

⁴ Rasa-gangādhara has numerous references, but see pp. 163 and and 200, where both the Sūtra and Vṛtti are quoted under the citation Alamkāra-sarvasva. See also pp. 251, 342-43, 352, 482. Also Rāghava-bhatta on Sakuntalā p. 161 (= Alam. sarv. vṛtti p. 64), p. 179 (= ibid, p. 75), p. 193 (= ibid, p. 127).

tradition says, been in fact a pupil of Ruyyaka.1 Rājānaka Mankhaka or Mankhuka, son of Visvavarta and grandson of Manmatha, is well known as the Kashmirian author of Srikantha-carita (ed. Durgaprasad and K. P. Bombay NSP. 1887) which written, WAS according to Bühler,² between 1135 and 1145 A. D. Mańkhaka's brother Alamkāra (or Lankaka, xxv. 15, 37f) was a minister (v. 62, xxv. 43, 61) under Sussala and Jayasimha of Kashmir (1129-1150 A.D.), and another brother Śrngāra held a high office (brhat-tantrapati) under Sussala, whom he assisted in his war against Harşadeva. Mankhaka tells us how after composing his poem he submitted it, at the house of his brother Alamkara, to an assembly of learned scholars and officials, among whom he describes Ruyyaka as his own preceptor (xxv. 30, 135). This also explains how Ruyyaka's own work contains five verses from Mahkhaka's poem³ cited as illustrations; for it is not unlikely that the Guru should in this way quote his worthy disciple. As the latest date of Mankhaka's poem is given as 1145 A.D., we may presume that Ruyyaka's Alamkāra-sarvasva, which quotes it, was composed a little later. Again, Māņikyacandra's Samketa (on Mammata) which was composed in 1159-60 A.D. quotes the Alamkara-sarvasva. We can, therefore, fix Ruyyaka's literary career in the second and third quarters of the 12th century.

¹ This ract, as well as what Jayaratha says about corruptions and additions to the text of the Alamkara-sarvasva, would perhaps explain how the tradition of Mankhaka's collaboration began.

² op. cit. p. 50f; extract App. pp. cix f. See also Rāja-tarang. viii. 3354.

³ See Jacob in *JRAS*, 1897, p. 283 for these verses (ii. 49, iv. 79, v. 23, vi. 16, x. 10).

⁴ Jacob (op. cit. p. 283) points out that Ruyyaka (p 93) quotes Rāja-tarangiņī iv. 441 (asamāpta-jigīṣasya), which work was not completed till about 1150 A. D. in the reign of Jayasimha. This verse, however, occurs an an anonymous quotation in Abhinava's Comm. on Bharata (ch. vi, vol. i, p. 305). It should be borne in mind that Jayaratha

In this work, composed in the Sūtra-vṛtti style Ruyyuka concerns himself only with poetic figures. After dealing with Punar-uktavadābhāsa, Anuprāsa (Cheka-, Vṛtti- and Lāṭa-), Yamaka and Citra ne goes on to discuss 75 figures of Artha beginning with Upamā. He gives two altogether new figures Vikalpa (p. 159) and Vicitra (p. 133-34). His work is mostly drawn upon by later writers like Viśvanātha, Vidyānātha and Appayya Dīkṣita. Ruyyaka quotes the Kāvya-prakāśa in many places (p. 107 on Paryāyokta; p, 102 = KP iv, p. 128; p. 183 definition of Bhāvika), and the definitions of Citra, Kāvya-liṅga, Vyājokti, Uttara, Milita and Samādhi are given as they occur in Mammata's work.

(3)

The works of Ruyyaka are numerous, of which three only have been printed:

- (1) Kāvyaprakāśa-saṃketa, a commentary on Mammaṭa's text, referred to as Ruyyaka's by Jayaratha p. 102, and by Ratnakaṇṭha (Peterson ii, pp. 17, 19 as Brhat-saṃketa). For ed. see above p. 156.
- (2) Alamkāra-mañjarī, referred to by himself at p 15. Not mentioned by Jayaratha as Ruyyaka's. P. V. Kane doubts if it is a work by Ruyyaka.
- (3) Sāhitya-mīmāṃsa, referred to by himself at p. 61, also by Jayaratha p. 126. It is cited without the author's name in Vidyānātha p. 11 (Cf ABod 210a). Burnell mentions an anonymous metrical Sāhitya-mīmāṃsā (p. 58a), with prose Vṛtti in eight Prakaraṇas. This is apparently the Sāhitya-mīmāṃsā published in the Trivandrum Skt. Series in 1934.¹ The MS sources contain large gaps and lacunae, and the name of the author is not given either at the beginning or at the

frequently complains of unauthorised additions and corruption of the text itself (pp. 50. 67, 107, 124, 126 etc.), and discusses readings (pp. 21, 37, 49, 172 etc.). Jayaratha himself quotes twelve verses (p. 194) from the Rāja-taranginī, which describe Lalitāditya of Kashmir.

1 See above p. 144.

- end. A résumé of this work has been given by P. V. Kane (HSP, pp. 269-72), who believes it to be a work of Ruyyaka. It is noteworthy, however, that it speaks not of Vyañjanā, but of Tātparya-vṛtti as leading to the realisation of Rasa. a view which fundamentally differs from that of Ruyyaka who declares distinctly (p. 13): asti tāvad vyaṅgya-niṣṭho vyāpāraḥ. It shows some influence of the Śṛṅgāra-prakāśa of Bhoja. V. Raghavan (pp. 99-100) doubts if it is the work of Ruyyaka.
- (4) Alamkārānusārinī, cited by Jayaratha as Ruyyaka's (pp. 36, 57, 58 and 60). This work is supposed by Peterson¹, and following him by Aufrecht² and Jacobi³, to be a commentary on Jahlana's Somapāla-vilāsa. As Jayaratha's citations indicate, it discussed some of the poetic figures in that composition, but there is nothing in these citations to show that it was in fact a commentary on Jahlana's Somapāla-vilāsa. The poet Jahlana is described in Mankhaka's Srikantha-carita (xxv. 75); and Somapāla, king of Rājapurī (near Kashmir), whose life Jahlana appears to have recorded, is known from the Rāja-taranginī (viii, 621f) to have made war against Kashmirian Sussala. It is clear that this poet, who must have flourished in the first half of the 12th century, should be distinguished from Bhagadatta Jahlanadeva, the compiler of the Sūkti muktāvali, who lived in the second half of the 13th century, but to whom Aufrecht (i. 203a) wrongly attributes the Somapāla-vilāsa itself.
- (5) A commentary on Mahimabhatta's Vyakti-viveka, referred to by Jayaratha as Vyaktiviveka-vicāra (p. 13). This has been identified with the anonymous commentary published with Mahimabhatta's work in the Trivandrum Sanskrit Series; for, although the author's name does not appear in the published text of that commentary, which is called simply "Vyāk hyāna,

¹ Report ii, p. 17; introd. to Subhāş¹. p. 106; Actes du ôme Cangrés p. 364. It is so described by Ratnakantha in his comm on Stuti-kusumānjali.

² Cat. Cat. 1. 32b.

³ ZDMG lxii, 291: cf Harichand Sastri. op. cit. pp. 105-105.

the an onymous commentator refers in it to his other works. the Sāhitya-mīmāṃsā (p. 32) and Harşacarita-vārttika (p. 44. 50), which we know to be two works of Ruyyaka referred to by himself in his Alaṃkāra-sarvasva and mentioned by Jayaratha. He refers in this work also to the Candrikā (on the Dhvanyāloka), Kāvya-kautuka (p. 13), Hṛdaya-darpaṇa (pp. 1. 13), and Kuntaka's Vakrokti-jīvita (pp. 16, 32, 36, 44).

- (6) Nāţaka-mīmāṃsā referred to as his own in the above commentary on Mahimabhaţţa (p. 32).
- (7) Harşacarita-vārttika referred to as his own in Alamkāra-sarvasva p. 61 and in Vyaktiviveka-vyākhyāna p. 44, 50.
- (8) Sahṛdaya·līlā. edited in the Kāvyamālā Gucchaka 5, as well as by Pischel (Kiel 1886. along with Rudra's Śṛṅgāra-tilaka). The work consists of four Ullekhas: (i) Guṇa, describing the ten excellences (Rūpa. Varṇa. Prabhā etc.) of a woman (ii) Alaṃkāra, speaking of ornaments of gold, pearls etc, unguents, flowers worn by a woman (iii) Jīvita, dealing with youth which is the essence of womanly charm, and (iv) Parikara. treating of the parapharnelia of beauty.
- (9) Alamkāra-vārttika, cited as Ruyyaka's by Jayaratha p. 71.
- (10) Śrīkantha-stava cited as madīya in Alamkāra-sarvasve p. 19.

(4)

THE COMMENTATORS ON RUYYAKA

Alaka (or Alaja?)

This commentator is referred to by Ratnakantha in his own commentary on Mammata¹, the name given being Rājā-naka Alaka. We have seen that the identification of Mammata²s continuator Alaka. Alata or Allata with this commentator is open to doubt², and nothing more can be said on the subject until his commentary is recovered.

- 1 Peterson, Report ii, p. 17 f. See above p. 169.
- 2 See above p. 149f.

Jayaratha

His commentary is called Alamkāra-vimaršinī. He informs us that his father's name was Śrńgāra, and his patron was king Rājarāja. From his commentary "Viveka on the Tantrāloka of Abhinavagupta, we learn that the full name of his father was Śringāraratha, who had two sons named Jayaratha and Jayadratha¹. He also tells us that he was a pupil of Jayaratha's pedigree is given at some Sankhadhara and Siva. length in his "Viveka, and we learn that his great-grandfather's brother was Sivaratha2, who was a minister of king Ucchala of Kashmir (1101-1111 A.D.). As four generations intervene between the minister of Ucchala and Jayaratha. Bühler thinks that the latter lived in the beginning of the 13th century. Jacobi supports this conclusion and attempts to arrive at greater precision by identifying Jayaratha's (and his father's) patron king Rajaraja with Rajadeva who is mentioned by Jonaraja in 2 Raja-tarangini v. 79-91, and who lived in 1203-1226 A.D.³

The citations in Jayaratha are numerous, and include the names of Bhāmaha, Daṇḍin, Udbhaṭa, Vāmana, Rudraṭa, the Dhvanikara (=Ānandavardhana), the Vakroktijīvita-kāra, Abhinavagupta, the Vyaktiviveka-kāra, Bhoja and Mammaṭa.

- 1 The Kashmirian MSS of the Alamkāra-vimar(inī examined by Buhler vacillate between these two names as the name of our author; and Peterson's MS of Ratnakantha's Sāra-samuccaya reads Jayadratha (ii p. 17), which is accepted by Aufrecht, although the published texts of the "Vimarśinī, as well as the "Viveka, have Jayaratha, which Bühler himself considers (op cit. p. 68) to be the correct name of the author of the two commentaries, the other being that of his brother—Jayadratha wrote a Kāvya in 32 cantos, named Hara-carita-cintāmaņi (ed. NSP, Bombay 1897)
- 2 v. 22; see the extract given in Bühler op, cit. App. pp. cli f. This Sivaratha is mentioned in $R\bar{a}_ja$ -tarang viii. 111.
- Jacob (JRAS, 1897, p. 283) came to the conclusion that Jayaratha must be placed later than the end of 12th century, for he quotes (p. 64) from the Pṛthvīrāja-vijaya, a poem dealing with Pṛthvīrāja of Delhi who fell in 1193 A. D. (cf Bühler, op. cit. p. 62).

Besides citing his own author's other works and Rajanaka Tilaka's work on Udbhata, Jayaratha also mentions some other works on Alamkara unknown to us, viz. Alamkara-sūtra (p. 150), Alamkāra-bhūsya (pp. 35, 46, 83, 138, 173) and Alamkāra-sāra (pp. 88, 97, 171, 172, 184), as well as an Alamkāravārttika (p. 71) ascrībed to Ruyyaka. The Alamkāra-bhāşya is also cited by Jagannātha (pp. 239, 365); while a work bearing the name Alamkāra-sāra is mentioned in Kielhorn's list¹ and in Peterson iii, App. p. 393; but this is probably a later work attributed to Balakṛṣṇa Payagunda who also wrote a commentary on Appayya's Citra-mīmāmsā (q. v.) and was thus later than the end of the 16th century². *Vimarsinī is, in its turn, cited extensively by Jagannātha (pp. 325, 327, 352, 380, 387, 414, 418), chiefly because Appayya, against whom Jagannatha's attacks are primarily directed, follows Ruyyaka and Jayaratha pretty slavishly.

Jayaratha appears also to have written another work on Poetics called Alamkārodāharaṇa, in the concluding verse of which he refers to his "Vimarśinī. It appears from the résumé of the work given in Mitra 2442 that it was chiefly meant to adduce illustrations to Ruyyaka's text, which the limited scope of his "Vimarśinī did not allow him to do properly.

Samudrabandha

Samudrabandha flourished, as he himself tells us, in the time of Ravivarman, alias Samgrāmadhīra, king of Kolamba (Quilon) in the Kerala country (Malabar), and there are numerous illustrative verses in the commentary itself, which sing the praise of this king⁴. This king was born in 1266-67 A.D.

- 1 Kielhorn's List 18; see also Aufrecht i. 32b.
- 2 But see Pischel in GgA, 1885, p 765, contra Jacobi in ZDMG xlii 293.
 - 3 See Jammu Cat. no. 806, p. 59.
- 4 e. g. pp. 48, 58, 76, 133, 149 (kolambādhıpatı) etc. For Ravivarman and Samudrabandha, see K. Kunjunnı Raja, op. cit. pp. 211-13.

and crowned himself as king of Malabar on the banks of the Vegavatī in 1312-13 A.D.; so that Samudrabandha may be taken to have flourished towards the end of the 13th and the beginning of the 14th century.

The citations from earlier authors are not so numerous in Samudrabandha, but he shows his familiarity with Bhāmaha. Udbhaṭa, Vāmana, Rudraṭa, the Dhvanikāra and Ānandavardhana, Bhaṭṭa Nāyaka, the Vakroktijīvita-kāra, Mahimabhaṭṭa, Bhoja and Mammaṭa. He also cites Udbhaṭa's vṛṭti, presumably on Bhāmaha's Kāvyālamkāra. He refers to the explanation of other commentators of the Alamkāra-sarvasva (pp. 55, 96, 145, 239) and discusses readings (p. 57).

Śrīvidyā-Cukravartin

A commentary, called "Samjīvanī or Alamkāra-samjīvanī on Ruyyaka is cited by Mallinātha¹ and Kumārasvāmin². Appayya³ and Viśveśvara⁴. They apparently refer to the author of this commentary by citing Cakravartin; for the two verses², cited by them, are attributed to this commentator by Kumārasvāmin, whose other references show that Cakravartin wrote a "Samījīvanī commentary on the Alamkāra-sarvasva. This Cakravartin, who is to be distinguished from Paramānanda Cakravartin, appears to be identical with Śrīvidyā-Cakravartin, two MSS of whose commentary on Ruyyaka, called "Samjīvanī, are noticed in the Madras Catalogue*. This commentary refers to and is referred to by the same

¹ pp. 31, 57, 221, 237, 324.

² pp. 54 (Cakravartin as commentator on Alam. sarvasva), 319, 377, 383 ("Samjīvanī as a comm. on Alam. sarv.), 387, 393, 398, 435, 449-50, 465.

³ Citr. mim. pp. 7, 74.

⁴ Alam, kaust. p. 11.

⁵ as cited above = Ratnāpana p. 378.

⁶ xit, no. 12799-12800, pp. 8609-10. Jacobi wrongly conjectured Alaka to be the author of this "Samjīvanî (ZDMG lxii, p. 292).

author's Sampradāya-prakāsinī Bṛhatī Ṭīkā on Mammaṭa¹, and both the commentaries are mentioned together at the close of the former work thus:

kāvyaprakāśe'lamkārasarvasve ca vipaścitām | atyādaro jagaty asmin, vyākhyātam ubhayam tataḥ | |.

which indicates the popularity of the works of Mammata and Ruyyaka in later times. Śrīvidyā-Cakravartin calls his author Rucaka. He refers to Viśvanātha as sāmdhivigrahika. He is evidently a South Indian writer, belonging to the Śaiva Sampradāya or Śaiva sect². The reference by Mallinātha should place him chronologically earlier than the end of the 14th century. He appears to have flourished in the court of Vīra Vallāla III (Hoysala) in the beginning of the 14th century (V. Raghavan in ABORI xiv, 1933, p. 256). A Rasamīmāmsā³ is also ascribed to Vidyā-Cakravartin, as well as a Bharata-samgraha on Dramaturgy and Rasa (ABORI, xiv 1933, p. 257).

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- 1 *ibid*, no. 12826-28, p. 8627, Burnell 55a. Ed. Trivandrum Skt. Series 1926; see above p. 162. He also wrote a Laghu-Ţikā prior to his writing of the Bṛhatī Ṭīkā in which this comm. is referred to. Only one of these commentaries has been published in the Trivandrum ed.
- 2 The Sampradāya-mata or Sāmpradāyakas are quoted by Prabhā-kara Bhatta in his Rasa-pradīpa (before 1583 A. D.) at pp. 11, 13, 32.
- 3 See V. Raghavan in ABORI, xvi, 1934-35, p. 140. It is mentioned by Vidyā-Cakravartin himself in his comm. on Ruyyaka (rasa-mīmāṃ-sāyaṃ vistaraḥ), but it is not clear whether it is a separate work.

Commentaries. (1) Alamkāra-vimaršinī of Jayaratha, ed. with text in Nir. Sag. Press, as above, 1893. On MSS of Alamkārodāharaņa see Aufrecht i. 32a, 773a, ii. 6b; WBod 1157. (2) °Vṛtti of Samudrabandha, ed. with text in Trivandrum Sank. Series 1915, as above. (3) °Samjīvanī of Śrīvidyā-Cakravartin. Madras Cat. xxii, 12799-12800; Aufrecht i. 32b. Not yet published,

Sahrdaya-līlā

Edition. (1) ed. Pischel (with Rudra's Śṛṅgāra-tilaka), Kiel 1886. (2) ed. Kāvyamālā Gucchaka v, 1908.

Comm. on the Vyakti-viveka

Edition. With the text of that work, ed. T. Ganapati Sastri (anonymous but attributed to Ruyyaka), Trivandrum Sansk. Series, 1909.

HEMACANDRA AND THE VÄGBHAŢAS

(1)

The versatile and volumious Jaina writer Hemacandra directed his many-sided activity to the field of Sanskrit Poetics as well, and wrote a Kāvyānuśāsana with its Vṛttı named Alaṃkāra-cūḍāmaṇi and a glass called Viveka, basing it chiefly on Mammaṭa's work, but appropriating his materials from various sources. While as a textbook it hardly super-

1 He appropriates, tor instance, long passages, without acknowledgment, from Rājašekhara, Abhinavagupta, the Vakroktijīvita-kāra, Mammata and others. A passage in Abhinava-bhāratī on Bharata ch. iv is copied (Hemacandra pp. 57-66) almost literally with only a general acknowledgment at conclusion: iti śrīmān abhinavaguptācāryaḥ, etanmatam evāsmābhir upajīvitam veditavyam (p. 66). In the Vṛtu, again, at p. 83, his remarks on the sthāyi-bhāva (pp. 83-84) are copied from the same source. His extensive appropriation from Rājašekhara has been already alluded to; see p 118 above. At p. 316 he calls himself a follower of Bharata's views (bharata-matānusārī). His dependence on earlier works is so close as to amount at times to almost slavish imitation or plagiarism.

sedes the Kāvya-prakāśa, it is, like most of Hemacandra's other productions, more or less an industrious compilation, displaying its author's encyclopaedic erudition, but hardly constituting an original contribution to the subject.

About Hemacandra and his time, we know perhaps more than we do with regard to other writers on Poetics, and the biographical and other details will be found collected together in Bühler's erudite little pamphlet on this author¹. candra was born at Dhunduka or Dhandhukā (in Ahmedabad) on the full-moon night of the month of Karttika in the Samvat year 1145=1088 A.D. of humble Bania parents, named Caciga and Pāhini. He was originally named Cangadeva. He was initiated as a Jaina monk in Samvat 1150=1093 A.D., taking the name of Somananda. He was a pupil of Devacandra of Vaira-śākhā, author of the Sthānaka-vrtti and the Santinatha-carita. He became a sūri or ācārya in Samvat 1166=1109 A.D. changing his name, again, into Hemacandra. He spent the greater part of his life, as the acknowledged head of the Jaina community at Anahilla-pattana, under the patronage of Jayasımha Siddharāja (1094-1143 A. D.) and his successor Kumārapāla of Gujarat (1143-1172 A.D) dying shortly before the latter is Samvat 1229=1172 A. D. at the ripe old age of 84 years. He wrote most of his works at the request of his patrons, of whom he converted Kumārapāla into Jainism in Samvat 1216=1160 A.D.

Hemacandra wrote voluminous works on many branches of Sanskrit learning, such as grammar (Siddha-hemacandra, Sabdānuśāsana, Liṅgānuśāsana, Dhātu-pārāyaṇa and Uṇādi-sūtra), prosody (Chandonuśāsana), lexicon (Abhidhāna-cintāmaṇi, Anekārtha-saṇigraha, Nighaṇṭu-śeṣa, and Deśī-nāmamālā), besides works on Jaina Sastra. His stupendous learning justifies his sobriquet Kalikāla-Sarvajāa. His Kāvyānuśā-

¹ Ueber das Leben des Jaina Monches Hemacandra, Wien 1889 trs. into English by Manilal Patel in the Singhi Jaina Series 1936. See also Jacobi in Ency. of Religion and Ethics, vi. 591.

sana in eight Adhyāyas has the merit of comprehending all topis of Poetics, including a brief reference to Dramaturgy. In spite of occasional differences Hemacandra borrows freely from Bharata, Ānandavardhana, Abhinavagupta, Mammata and Rājašekhara. Its want of any striking originality perhaps stood on the way of its being accepted as an authoritative work. It exercised little influence on later writers and is scarcely ever quoted¹. It is written in the form of Sūtra and Vṛtti.²

(2)

There are two Vāgbhaṭas in Sanskrit Poetics who must be distinguished from each other, viz. Vāgbhaṭa, author of the Vāgbhaṭālaṃkāra (here cited as Vāgbhaṭa I) and Vāgbhaṭa, author of the Kāvyānuśāsana and its Vṛtti, Alaṃkāra-tilaka (here cited as Vāgbhaṭa II). Eggeling³ falls into the error of confounding the two and assigning both the works to the same author. From the Vāgbhaṭālaṃkāra iv. 148. we learn that the Jaina name in the Prakrit form of the author is Bāhaṭa and that he was son of Soma⁴. From the Kāvyānuśā-sanu and its commentary¹, on the other hand, we learn that its author was son of Nemikumāra and Mahā-(mahī?-) devī or Vasundharā; while his native town, called Rāhaṭapura from the shine of a deity of that name, is mentioned⁵, as well as described in a verse by the author himself².

¹ Except, as P. V. Kane notes (HSP, p. 278), by Ratnāpaņa pp. 46, 75, 224, 233, 259, 299.

² For summary of the topics of Hemacandra's Kāvyānušāsana see below vol. ii, ch. vii (6).

³ IOC 111, pp. 330-1.

⁴ So also in Jinavardhana, Simhadeva and Kşemahamsa-gani's comms, on this verse.

⁵ p. 1 vrtti, and the concluding verse.

⁶ p. 1 vrtti.

^{7 100&#}x27; 111, p. 332. In the Nir. Sag. Press edition of the work, this verse is also given at p. 10, but the words asinabhir uktam, preceding it in the India Office MS, are wanting.

Vāgbhaṭa II also appears to cite Vāgbhaṭa I as one of his authorities¹. Both the Vāgbhaṭas, however, quote from the poet Vāgbhaṭa, author of the Nemi-nirvāṇa, Vāgbhaṭa II citing the poem by name frequently for the purpose of illustrating the characteristics of a good poem (e.g. p. 16)². Vāgbhaṭa I may or may not be identical with the poet of the Nemi-nirvāṇa; but Vāgbhaṭa II should be distinguished from both³. We must also distinguish the medical writer Vāgbhaṭa, son of Siṃhagupta.

Vāgbhaṭa I seems to have been contemporaneous with Hemacandra, and lived under Cālukya Jayasiṃha Siddharāja of Aṇahilla-pattana⁴, who flourished from 1094 to 1143 A. D. We have references to this king and his capital in iv. 45, 76, 81, 85 and 132, and he is described as son of king Karṇadeva. Both Jinavardhana Sūri and Siṃhadeva Gaṇi in their commentaries explain that the prince referred to is Jayasiṃha, son of Karṇadeva, of Aṇahilla-pāṭaka. It also appears from what Siṃhadeva Gaṇi on iv. 148 says that Vāgbhaṭa was probably a mahāmātya of the said prince, a statement which is supported by the description given of our author in Prabhācandra Sūri's Prabhāvaka-carita⁵ (p. 205),

- 1 ii, p. 31: iti daņģi-vāmana-vāgbhatādi-praņītā daša kāvya-guņāh, vayam tu mādhuryaujaḥ-prasāda-lakṣaṇāms trīneva guṇān manyāmahe.
- 2 The verses quoted in Vāgbhatālamkāra from the Nemi-nirvāņa are given by Jacob, op. cit. p. 309.
- 3 Winternitz *hinks (Geschichte der Ind. Lit. ii, p. 338 fn 1; iii, p. 22 fn 1, also iii, p. 642) that Vägbhata I is the same as the poet of the Nemi-nirvāṇa.—Jahlaṇa ascribes the verse anālocya premṇaḥ to one Vägbhata, but it does not occur in any of these Vägbhatas. It occurs, however, in Amaru 80. It is cited anonymously by Vallabhadeva 1170; while in the Sadukti-karṇāmṛta it is attributed to Rājašekhara, and in Kavīndra-vacana 372 to the poetess Vikaṭanitambā.
- 4 And not Jayasimha of Kashmir, as Harichand (p. 49) erroneously gives it.
- 5 Second half of the 13th century, see Buhler's Hemacandra note 1; also Vāgbhatālam° (ed. Kāvyamālā 1916) p. 1-2 fn.

from which we also learn that Vāgbhaṭa was living in 1123 A. D. and also in 1157 A.D. Vāgbhaṭa's literary activity, therefore, nay be assigned roughly to the first half of the 12th century.

The Vāgbhatālaṃkāra, consisting of five Paricchedas, covers in 260 verses most of the topics of Poetics, but excludes Dramaturgy. Although it claims a large number of commentaries, it is a small compilation of no superior merit. It speaks of ten Guṇas instead of three of Mammata and Hemacandra, and only two Rītis, namely Vaidarbha and Gauḍīya Weber's Berlin MS no. 1718 adds a sixth chapter; see also Burnell, Cat. Tanjore MSS, p. 576.

Vagbhata II appears to be a later writer. His reference to Vāgbhata I and considerable borrowing from Hemacandra give us one limit to his date. The other terminus is unknown; for the Jaina authors (excepting Hemacandra) are rarely quoted by later writers on the subject. He may have been earlier than Devesvara, whose borrowings. however, are not conclusive enough for any chronological inference. Vāgbhaţa II himself cites two of his own works, viz. Rsabhadeva-carita (p. 15, called a mahākāvya) and Chandonuśāsana (p. 20); but of these nothing is known. In two illustrative verses there are references to two princes called Mülarāja (p. 45) and Vibhākara (p. 44). Vibhākara is unknown, but Mūlarāja appears to be the same as the founder of the Calukya dynasty at Anahilla-pattana (=Anhilvād) in Gujarat². A MS of Kāvyānuśāsana (Eggeling. Ind. Office Cat. no. 1157) is dated in Samvat 1515 (=1458-59 A.D.). Vāgbhata II probably flourished in the 14th century.

Like Hemacandra's work of the same name, the Kāvyānu-

I Harichand Sastri (op. cit. p. 49) places him in the 13th century, but he does not state the grounds of his opinion.

² Peterson notes (iii, App. p. 124) a reference in the puspikā of a MS of Hemacandra's Trisasti-salāka-purusa to one Nemikumāra, who flourished in Samvat 1295, and he queries whether this Nemikumāra was our Vāgbhata's father (iv, p. lxxi).

sāsana of Vāgbhaṭa II is written in the form of Sūtra and a running commentary; but it is a much smaller work of five Adhyāyas. It covers most topics of Poetics but there is no treatment of dramaturgy. It speaks, however, of three Guṇas and three Rītis after Mammaṭa. The name and definition of poetic figures in these Jaina writers differ in some cases from those of orthodox authors. They do not exceed 40 in number, but Vāgbhaṭa II gives nearly 70 poetic figures.

(3)

No commentaries on Hemacandra and Vāgbhaṭa II is known, but the Vāgbhaṭālaṃkāra¹ of Vāgbhaṭa I appears to have been fortunate in this respect. Of the commentators on this work, whose names are noted below, Jinavardhana Sūri and Siṃhadeva Gaṇi are better known, and their commentaries have been published. Jinavardhana was pupil of Jinarāja Sūri and was a priest of Kharatara-gaccha from about 1405 to 1419 A.D.². In some catalogues (e.g. Mıtra 2814), his name is given as Ādinātha.

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Vāgbhata I

Editions. Vāgbhatālamkāra (1) ed. by A. Borooah, Calcutta

- 1 The published text of this work contains five chapters, which is also the number in the Bodleian, Stein, Madras and India Office MSS; but Weber's MS (no. 1718) adds a sixth chapter, which appears to deal with the figure yamaka.
- 2 Klatt in IA xi p. 249; Bhandarkar, Rep. 1882-3, p. 25; IOC iii, no. 1156 and 2656a.

- 1883. (2) ed. Sivadatta and K. P. Parab (with Simhadeva Gaṇi's comm.), Nir. Sag. Press, Bombay 1895, 1915 (our references are to the ed. of 1915). (3) by Jivananda Vidyasagar, 3rd ed. Calcutta 1903, (4) by Murtidhara, Venkatesvara Press, Bombay. (5) with an old gloss, by Ksemaraja Srikrishnadasa, Bombay 1894. (6) Granthamālā iii, 1889-90 (with Jinavardhana's comm.).
- Commentaries. (1) by Jinavardhana Sūri, who was a priest of Kharatara-gaccha from about 1405 to 1419. Ed. with the text in Granthamālā iii, as noted above. Ādinātha in Mitra 2814 (Aufrecht i. 559a) is the same as Jinavardhana. A MS copied in Saṃvat 1610 =1553-54 A.D. (Cat. MSS BORI xii, p. 323).
- (2) By Simhadeva Gani, ed. NSP, Bombay, as noted. In ALeip MS no. 824, p. 269, the commentary is called Cūrnī. But this name is not found in Jammu MS no. 1231, p. 274.
- (3) By Samayasundara, pupil of Sakalacandra, who was a pupil of Jinacandra. His comm. was composed in Ahmedabad for Harirāma in 1636 A. D. See Peterson iv, p. cxxvi. Also wrote a comm. on Raghu.
- (4) By Rājahaṃsa Upādhyāya, pupil of Jinatilaka Sūri who was a pupil of Jinaprabha Sūri of Kharatara-gaccha. The MS noticed by Bhandarkar (Rep. 1883-84, pp. 156, 279) was copied in Saṃvat 1486=1430 A.D. See P. K. Gode's note in Calcutta Orient. Journal ii, pp. 312-14, in which he gives 2nd half of 14th century (between 1350 and 1400 A. D) as the probable date of this commentary.
- (5) Samāsānvaya Ţippaņa by Kşemahamsa Gani. Extract in Stein p. 274.
- (6) Vivaraņa of Gaņeśa, son of Anantabhaţţa and disciple of Bhāskara. Aufrecht i. 559a, 794a; IOC iii, no. 1155/702b, p. 330, A MS copied in 1713 A.D.
- (7) Avacūri. Author's name unknown. Aufrecht ii. 132a, iii. 118b.
- (8) Jāna-pramodikā of Vācanācārya Jānapramoda-gaņi,

composed in Samvat 1681 (=1624-25). See P. K. Gode, Studies in Ind. Literary Hist. i, p. 76.

Vāgbhata II

Edition. Kāvyānuśāsana, by Sivadatta and K. P. Parab. NSP, Bombay 1894, 1915 with Alamkāra-tilaka.

JAYADEVA

(1)

Jayadeva, author of the popular text-book Candrāloka, is otherwise known as Pīyūşavarşa (i. 2)1. He himself gives us the names of his parents as Mahādeva and Sumitrā (1. 16). The name Jayadeva, however, is borne by our author in common with many other Sanskrit writers. Of the fifteen or more different persons, mentioned by Aufrecht, as bearing the same name, it seems likely that our author is identical with the poet who wrote the well-known drama called the Prasanna-raghava; for in the prologue to that drama there are two verses (i. 14-15) which inform us that the dramatist was also son of Mahadeva of the Kaundinya-gotra and Sumitra, a coincidence of names which does not seem to be accidental. Aufrecht, however, identifies² our author with Jayadeva who composed the well-known lyric named Gita-govinda; but apart from all arguments derived from the style and poetic genius of the two writers, which possess few kindred excellences, the fact that the author of the lyric, in one of his

¹ Also in a verse given at the end in some MSS, e.g. Peterson ii, p. 109, Madras Cat. xxii, p. 8656: pīyūṣavarṣa-prabhavaṃ candrālokam manoharam etc. Also the verse jayanti yājñika-śrīman-mahādevāṅga-janmanaḥ/ sūkti-pīyūṣa-varṣasya jayadeva-kaver giraḥ, commented on in the Śaradāgama and the Rākāgama comms. These verses are wanting in the Calcutta ed. The Rākāgama comm. of Gāgābhaṭṭa expressly states: Jayadevasyaiva pīyūṣavarṣa iti nāmāntaram.

² ZDMG xxv11, p. 30.

concluding verses,¹ tells us that he was son of Bhojadeva and Rāmādevī (or Vāmādevī or Rādhādevī, according to other readings) stands seriously against the proposed identification. The identity of Jayadeva with the logician Pakṣadhara, also called Jayadeva, is equally doubtful, and Aufrecht mentions the two names separately. The name Pakṣadhara, no doubt, was a mere title given to the logician from the circumstance of his having been able to maintain by subtle reasoning whatever side of a question he undertook to defend; but the argument for his identity with our Jayadeva, relied on by Hall², that Jayadeva in his drama refers (1.18) to his knowledge of pramāṇa, befitting a logician, is hardly convincing and sufficient³.

(2)

The date of Jayadeva yet remains unsettled. There is hardly any doubt, however, that he should be placed earlier than Keśava Miśra, who cites (p. 47) the verse kadalī kadalī from the Prasanna-rāghava (i. 37). As Keśava flourished in the middle of the 16th century, we may safely assign Jayadeva to a period earlier than that. This conclusion is supported by the fact that the Saradāgama commentary on the Candrāloka, was composed by Pradyotana Bhaṭṭa in 1583 A.D.4. under the patronage of a Bundella prince, named Vīrabhadra, of the Vaghela dynasty, who himself wrote a commentary on Vāt-

¹ xii, p. 171, ed. N. S. P. 1917. It is not commented upon by Kumbha in his Rasika-priyā comm., but Śaṃkara, in his Rasa-mañjarī comm. says: adhunā pitr-mātr-nāma nibadhnan prāthayate sajjanān (ed N. S. P. loc cit). The same in the colophon in Bühler's MSS (Kashmir Rep. p. 46), where read Rāmādevī for Rāmadeva.

² Introd. to Sāmkhya-pravacana-bhāṣya (Bibl. Ind Calcutta 1656), pp. 62 63. Keith (Indian Logic p. 33f) appears to accept the identification.

³ Jayadeva. author of a manual on Eroties, called Rati-mañjarī in 60 verses (ed. in Haeberlin and by Pavolini in Giornale della Soc. Asiat. Italiana, 1904 pp. 371f) is probably a different and later writer.

⁴ AFl no. 467 (51) p. 158; ALeip no. 820, p. 268.

syāyana (called Kandarpa-cūḍāmaṇi) in Saṃvat 1633=1577 A.D.¹ We may push this limit to the date of Jayadeva's work back to the beginning of the 14th century, because some verses from the Prasanna-rāghava (i. 19 and 33)² are quoted in Śāraṅgadhara-paddhati (164 and 3520), compiled in 1363 A.D.; while Śiṅgabhūpāla, whose date has been fixed at 1330 A.D., cites the drama itself in his Rasūrṇava-sudhākara (pp. 258, 277). This gives us one terminus to the date of Jayadeva in the first quarter of the 14th century².

The other terminus is given by the inference that Jayadeva is later than Ruyyaka; for in his Candrāloka he directly adopts some of the original definitions of poetic figures given for the first time by Ruyyaka. The figure Vıkalpa, for instance, which (as both Ruyyaka himself and Jayaratha inform us) was invented and defined for the first time by Ruyyaka,

- 1 Peterson ii, pp, 66, 132; iv, p. exvi. Ed. Rama Chandra Sastri, Lahore 1926.
- 2 Other varses quoted are ii. 22 (=3557), vii. 59 (=3626), vii. 60 (=3631).
- 3 Paranipe and Panse in their edition (Poona 1894) of the drama Prasanna-rāghava (p. x111 f) seek to identify Jayadeva with the logician Paksadhara Jayadeva and assign him to a period between 1500 and 1577 A.D. So also Peterson in introd. to Subhās° p. 37f. Cf also Eggeling IOC in, pp. 332f. Winternitz (Geschichte der Ind Lit. in, p. 26. fn 3) thinks that Jayadeva could not have written long before Appayya. But all these scholars appear to have overlooked this quotation in Šārangadhara. No chronological conclusion is inferable from Jayadeva's mention of the poet Cora; for Buhler's identification of this poet with Bihlana is not free from doubt (see Solf, Die Kashmir Recension der Pañcāśikā, Kiel 1886, p. xxi f; also see on the question S. K. De, Hist. of Skt. Lit., Calcutta 1947, pp. 368-69. Nor should stress be laid on the fact that verses from the Prasanna-raghava occur in the Mahānātaka; for the date of the latter, as well as its proper text, cannot be taken to have been satisfactorily settled (see Lévi ii, p. 48; Sten Konow, Ind. Drama pp. 88-9). Jayadeva himself, as a rhetorician, is quoted by very late writers like Appayya, Keśava and Bhīmasena.
 - 4 Cf Jacobi in ZDMG lxii, p. 600, note 1. Ruyyaka says expressly

is literally copied by Jayadeva (v. 112). We cannot, therefore, place Jayadeva, who upholds the views peculiar to Ruyyaka as well as Mammata, earlier than the second half of the 12th century.

Jayadeva, therefore, should be assigned to the period between the last quarter of the 12th century and the first quarter of the 14th, a closer approximation than which is not possible at present; but perhaps we may tentatively place him in the first half of the 13th century.

(3)

The Candraloka is a general treatise on Poetics in ten chapters (called mayūkhas) and about 350 verses, written in the Anustubh metre. The Calcutta edition of the text. published in 1874¹, enumerates the following divisions: (1) Vāgvicāra (śl. 16). (2) Doşa-nirūpana (śl. 44½). (3) Lakşananirūpana (śl. 11). (4) Guna-nirūpana, given as ten in number (śl. 12). (5) Alamkāra-nirūpaņa, consisting of Śabdālamkāras (śl. 10), Alamkārānukramanikā (śl. 16) and Arthālamkāras (śl. 174). (6) Rasādi-nirūpana (śl. 24), incidentally dealing with three Rītis and five Vrttis. (7) Dhvani-nirūpana (śl. 18). (8) Gunībhūta-vyangya (śl. 10). (9) Laksaņā-nīrūpaņa (śl. 15). (10) Abhidhā-nirūpana (śl. 4). This arrangement is substantially followed in the Leipzig MS 819 (which contains only five mayūkhas) and correspond closely with the arrangement mentioned by Gangadhara in his commentary (p. 9) on Appayya's Kuvalayānanda, where the chapters are given thus: 1. Sabdamayūkha. 2. Dosa-mayūkha. 3. Laksana-mayūkha. 4. Guna-

with regard to this figure: pūrvair akṛta-viveko'tra darsita ity avaganta-vyam, upon which Jayaratha remarks: anenāsya granthakṛd-upaṭña-tvam eva darsitam (p. 159). Also the figure Vicitra (Ruyyaka p. 133= Jayadeva v. 82).

1 The Calcutta edition (by Jivananda) of 1906 substantially keeps to this arrangement and numbering of verses in the different chapters. The work contains about 300 verses, but the numbering differs to some extent in the different editions. The author gives his own illustrations.

mayūka. 5. Alamkāra-mayūkha. 6. Rasa-mayūkha. 7. Dhvani-mayūkha. 8. Gunībhūtavyangya-mayūkha. 9. Lakṣaṇā-mayūkha and 10. Tatśakti (=Abhidhā)-mayūkha¹.

It will be seen from this that the section on Arthalamkara in chapter v is the most considerable part of the work, which appears to have become, to the exclusion of the rest of the work, a popular manual of poetic figures. It was specially adapted for this purpose by Appayya Dīksita's Kuvalayānanda, which bodily incorporates the Kārikās of this section (with only slight modification), himself only writing the running prose commentary and adding a few supplementary figures. This work of Appayya's, therefore, may be regarded, in a sense, as a commentary on the Arthalamkara-chapter of the Candrāloka. Appayya himself indicates his indebtedness in one of the prefatory verses² by saying that the definitionstanzas of the Candrāloka are borrowed in his own work. but there are a few modifications and additions³ of his own. He also explains in the concluding verse how his work came to be called Kuvalayānanda (lit. 'delight of lotuses') from the Candrāloka (lit. 'the sight or light of the moon'):

candrāloko vijayatām, śaradāgama-sambhavah | hrdyah kuvalayānando yat-prasādād abhūd ayam,

which, apart from the obvious pun involved, praises the Candrāloka, the cause of its commentary called Saradāgama, from the contact of both of which the charming Kuvalayānanda originated. This Saradāgama commentary obviously

¹ The text as commented upon by Pradyotana Bhatta, Gāgābhatta and Vaidyanātha (*Madras Cat.* x11, 12876-78) contains ten *mayūkhas*. MSS of the complete text noticed also in Mitra ii p. 177, v p. 103, 1x p 184. Peterson 11 109.

² yeşām candrāloke dṛsyante laksya-lakṣaṇa-slokāḥ / prāyas ta eva, teṣām itaresām tvabhinavā viracyante.

³ The differences of reading in the Kārikās are noted in Halasynatha Sastri's ed. of Kuvalayānanda (with the Rasika-rañjanī of Gangādhara), Kumbhakonum :892.

refers to the commentary of the same name on the Candrāloka, composed by Pradyotana Bhatta in 1583 A. D.¹.

But on account of the wholesale appropriation of this chapter of Jayadeva's work, the title Candrāloka appears to have been frequently applied to the Arthālaṃkāra-section of the work² alone, as well as to Appayya's Kuvalayānanda' itself. Thus, the India Office MS 2656, Weber 1721 and Madras MSS 12871-74 constitute in reality the Arthālaṃkāra-section of the Candrāloka, embodied in the Kuvalayānanda, and not the whole text, but they are entitled Candrāloka. Appayya's work does not end with the hundred or 108 poetic figures dealt with by Jayadeva, but it adds a supplementary chapter on a few additional figures. In some texts of the

- 1 Vaidyanātha, apparently ignorant of the existence of the Saradāgama commentary, interprets (ed. N. S. P. 1917 p. 188) the phrase saradagama-sambhavah as referring to some previous original of the Candraloka itself. An instance of similar ignorance on the part of the commentator is given by the story of Asadhara in his comm. on the Kuvalav^a (p 86) that Appayva composed the Candraloka itself at the request of the king of Venkatagiri, and later on wrote his Kuvalay on its basis Cangadhara, a more reliable commentator on Appayya's work (who tells us that Appayya was the Guru of a brother of his grandfather) interprets the phrase correctly as: atra candraloka-nāmā granthah saradāgama-nāmnā tīkā-granthena sambhava utpattih (p. 283). The supposition ($\xi g \dot{\xi}$ ii, pp. 68-9) that Appayya's utilisation of Jayadeva's work was resented by the latter, who is said to have made a veiled reference to this fact in the prologue to the Prasanna-raghava (where the stage-manager alludes to the stealing of his name) is disproved by the fact that Appayya lived long after Jayadeva.
- 2 Cf. Gangādhara on Kuvalav p. 9: candrāloko'rthālamkārātmaka eva, na tvanya iti kezāmcid bhramah.
- 3 Thus, Regnaud (Rhétorique Sanskrite p. 375) speaks of the Candrā-loka as being composed of 151 ślokas, dealing with the definition and illustration of poetic figures, which description applies to the Kuvalay°.
- 4 This is not the largest number of poetic figures enumerated and defined in works on Alamkara. Mammata defines 61, Ruyyaka 75 Arthalamkaras; but Sobhakaramitra gives 109, Appayya Dikşita 115 Alamkaras, which go on multiplying!

Candrāloka this appears to have been erroneously included. A considerable confusion is also noticeable in the different MSS of Jayadeva's and Appayya's works as to the arrangement of the three opening verses, as well as with regard to the total number of ślokas contained in the Arthālaṃkāra-section. The verse paraspara-tapaḥ-saṃpat° occurs in most accepted texts of this section of the Candrāloka, but it is not intelligible why Jayadeva should add this benedictory verse in a chapter, which occurs in the middle of the book. Gaṅgādhara pointedly remarks that this verse is not Jayadeva's but was composed by Appayya himself as prefatory to his own work¹.

(4)

THE COMMENTATORS ON JAYADEVA

Of the commentators on the Candrāloka, mention has already been made of Pradyotana Bhatta (alias Padmanābha Miśra) and his commentary, called Candrāloka prakāśa Śaradāgama. He is described as son of Miśra Balabhadra, and his patron's name is given as Vīrabhadra (or rudra)-deva, son of Rāmacandra and grandson of Vīrabhānu, king of Ayodhya, of the Vaghela (Vandella)² family. His commentary is dated in 1583 A. D.; while his patron lived in the second half of the 16th century, as we find Vīrabhadra's commentary (called Kandarpa-cūḍāmaṇi) on Vātsyāyana is dated in 1577 A.D. Vīrabhadra is said to have murdered Abul Fazl at the instigation of Prince Selim His Court-pandit

¹ Gangādhara op. cit. p. 9: "tathā paraspara-tapaḥsaṃpat" iti candrāloka-nāndī-śloka ity api bhrama eva; pañcama-mayūkhe śadhā-laṃkārān nirūpya "upamā yatra sādṛśya" ityādinā arthālaṃkāra-prastāve nāndyā evābhāvāt. The same remark applies apparently to the second verse alaṃkārṣu bālānām and to v. 174 which alludes to "Veṅkaṭa-prabhu", for they appear to be Appayya's additions. Cf IOC iii, pp. 333-34 for a discussion of this point.

² The Madras MS reads vandella, but the Florentine MS (AFl p. 158) has vāghela.

Mitra Misra wrote the Viramitrodaya, in which he mentions his patron's name.

There is another commentary called $Ram\bar{a}^1$ written by Vaidyanātha Pāyaguṇḍa, who is probably not identical with Vaidyanātha Tatsat, the commentator on Govinda's $K\bar{a}vya-prad\bar{v}pa$ and Appayya's $Kuvalay\bar{a}nanda$, although the two writers are taken as identical in most catalogues. The colophon to their commentaries distinctly make out their respective family-names as Pāyaguṇḍa and Tatsat; while in one of the introductory verses of the $Ram\bar{a}$ our Vaidyanātha distinctly calls himself Pāyaguṇḍa which is a well-known Mahārāṣṭra surname; but he does not give his own genealogy. He appears to have written a commentary called $Gad\bar{a}$ on Nāgojī's $Paribh\bar{a}$ sendu-śekhara; he must, therefore, be later than the beginning of the 18th century.

There is another less known commentary, called Rākāgama or "Sudhā, composed by Gāgābhaṭṭa, alias Viśveśvara, son of Dinakara (or Divākara) Bhaṭṭa, who was a Mīmāṃsaka. Viśveśvara, who also wrote a number of Mīmāṃsā and Smṛti works (Aufrecht i. 587b), was a great-great-grandson of Rāmeśvara, nephew of the well-known Mīmāṃsaka Kamalā-kara Bhaṭṭa, whose date is the first quarter of the 17th century¹. Viśveśvara, therefore, is a comparatively modern writer who probably flourished in the beginning of the

¹ The name of his commentary is often given, through a confusion, as Harilocana-candrikā (Aufrecht i. 182a), which itself appears as a mistaken name for the Alamkāra-candrikā comm. of Vaidyanātha Tatsat on Kuvalayānanda; the mistake arising from the word harilocana-candrikā occurring in the benedictory verse to the latter commentary, as well as from this confusion between the commentators on Jayadeva and Appayya respectively. The benedictory verse runs thus: anucintya mahālakṣmīm hari-locana-candrikām | kurve kuvalayānanda-sad-a' imkāracāndrikām. See under Appayya Dīkṣita for the commentary. To Vaidyanātha Pāyagunde, however, is ascribed a Laghu Kuvalayānanda (BORI MS Cat. xii, no. 287, pp. 342-43).

² see above p. 167. The genealogy is given thus: Rāmeśvara -> Nārāyana -> Rāmakṛṣna -> Dinakara -> Viśveśvara.

18th century, and should not be confused with Viśveśvara author of the Alamkāra-kaustubha (q, v).

Two other little known commentaries are mentioned below.

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MSS. Madras Cat. xii, 12860 (which contains the verses of the Candrāloka with Kuvalay*), 12871-73. Most of the MS mentioned in other catalogues (see Aufrecht), however, contain the Arthālaṃkāra-section and not the whole text, see above p. 201-2. The Alaṃkāra-śataka of Jayadeva in Oppert ii, 2763 is a descriptive name perhaps of this section

of the Candrāloka. The Alamkāra-samgraha in Mitra 1612 is in reality this Arthālamkāra-section.

Commentaries. (1) Candrāloka-prakāśa Śaradāgama by Pradyotana Bhaṭṭa. Ed. as above. See Madras Cat. xxii, 12878 for a description. (2) Rākāgama or Sudhā by Viśveśvara alias Gāgābhaṭṭa. Ed. as above. Gāgābhaṭṭa is known to have officiated at the coronation of Sivaji in 1674 A.D. His Samaya-naya was composed for king Sambhāji in 1680-81 A.D. (P. K. Gode in Proc. Ind. Hist. Congress, 1939, pp. 1166-71). He belonged to the famous Maratha Bhaṭṭa family of Benares. His father Dinakara was author of Dinakaroddyota. (3) Ramā by Vaidyanātha Pāyaguṇḍa. Ed. as above. Madras Cat. xii 12876. (4) Comm by Vājacandra. Aufrecht i. 182a. (5) Dīpikā. Name of author unknown. Aufrecht i. 182a. (6) Śāradasari arī by Virūpākṣa. Hultzsch 1617; Tanjore Cat. ix 5221.

VIDYĀDHARA

(1)

The date of Vidyādhara, author of the Ekāvalī¹ has been fixed with sufficient approximation by K. P. Trivedi and R. G. Bhandaikar². The latest writer quoted and mentioned by Vidyadhara is Ruyyaka (p. 150); and this gives us one

- Aufrecht (1.75) mentions three different works called Ekāvalī, which appear to be the same work. The first and the third are undoubtedly identical and refer to our Ekāvalī, but the second is described by Burnell 54a (ci Oppert 11. 3605) as composed by Mahāmāheśvara Kavi. This, however, appears to be a title of Vidyādhara himself, and is apparently the source of the confusion of our Vidyādhara with Abhinavagupta who also bore the same title (see Weber 11. no. 1723). The colophon in the Madras MS (Madras Cat. xii, p. 8611) reads: iti śrīmato mahāmāheśvarasya kaver vidyādharasya kṛtāvekāvalī-nāmny alaṃkāra-sāstre etc. The first verse quoted in Burnell is the same as found in all the texts of our Ekāvalī The commentary Taralā noticed by Weber (loc. cit.) is apparently the same as Taralā of Mallinātha. The Kelirahasya on Erotics is ascribed to Vidyādhara by Aufrecht, but the colophon gives the author's name as Vaidya Vidyādhara.
- 2 Introd to the text in B. S. S. ed. and Bhandarkar Rep, 1887-91, p lxvi f.

terminus to his date at the middle of the 12th century. This conclusion is apparently supported by Vidyādhara's mention (p. 19) of Śrīharṣa, author of the Naiṣadha, who lived very probably in the 12th century¹; but Vidyādhara's allusion in the same context to the poet Harihara², who is said by him to have obtained amazing wealth from a prince Arjuna (presumably the ruler of Mālava of that name), puts this terminus a little lower at the first quarter of the 13th century. The $Ek\bar{a}val\bar{\imath}$, in its turn, is quoted by Śiṅgabhūpāla³, whose date is fixed at 1330 A.D.; while Mallinātha, at the end of the 14th century, commented upon it The internal evidence of the text, therefore, assigns it to a period between the first quarter of the 13th and the first quarter of the 14th century.

This approximation has been considerably narrowed down to the end of the 13th and the beginning of the 14th century by the identification of king Narasimha of Kalinga, panegyrised in the illustrative verses of the work, with either of the two Narasimhas of Kalinga, whose dates fall between 1282 and 1327. The patron of our author is described as one who crushed the pride of Hammira (pp. 176, 177, 257, 260), who is probably the famous Cauhan prince, the hero of

- 1 See Buhler in *JBRAS* x p. 31f, xi. p. 279f; K. T. Telang in *IA* ii, p. 71, iii 81f; Buhler, *Rep.* 1874-75, p. 8.
 - 2 See Trivedi's note at p. 348.
- 3 Rasārṇava-sudhākara p. 107=Ekāv. i. 2. Cf ŚgŚ 1, p. 7f. This verse occurs, however, as the third praśasti-śloka in the printed text of Bihlaṇa's Karṇa-sundarī (ed. Kāvyamālā 7, 1895, p. 56).—Siṅgabhūpāla refers to Vidyādhara and his Ekāvalī expressly in the following terms: utkalādhipateḥ śṛngāra-rasābhimānino narasiṃha-devasya cittam anuvartamānena vidyādhareṇa kavinā bāḍham abhyantarīkṛto'si, evam khalu samarthitam ekāvalyām anena (ed. Triv. Skt. Ser. p. 206). K. P. Trivedi (Introd. p. xxiii) comes to the conclusion that Vidyādhara was patronised by Keśarī-Narasiṃha (1282-1307 A. D.) or by Pratāpa-Narasiṃha (1307-1327).
- 4 As the author himself says (\$1.7): karomi narasimhasya cāţuślokān udāharan. In this respect the work resembles Pratāpa-rudrayašobhūşaņa of Vidyānātha, Raghunātha-bhūpālīya of Kṛṣṇa Yajvan and Alamkāra-mañjūṣā of Devaśamkara.

Nayacandra Sūri's poem¹, who began his reign about 1283 A.D. and attempted a conquest of Sourthern countries. All this makes it probable that the $Ek\bar{a}val\bar{\imath}$ was composed towards the end of the 13th and the beginning of the 14th century.

Vidyādhara appears to have written a work on Erotics entitled Kali-rahasya².

(2)

Mallinātha

The date of Mallinātha, author of the Taralā commentary on the Ekāvalī, has been fixed at the end of the 14th century by Bhandarkar and Trivedi³. He must have written his commentary after a certain time had elapsed from the composition of the original text; for from śl. 6 it appears that the Ekāvalī was not studied for some time because it had no commentaries. He is identical with Kolācala Mallinātha Sūri (Pedda Bhaṭṭa) who is the well-known scholiast and commentator on the five standard Mahākavyas of Kālidāsa, Bhāravi, Bhaṭṭi, Śrīharṣa and Māgha, in some of which he quotes from the Ekāvalī itself.

The Ekāvalī, consisting of Kārikā and Vṛtti in eight Unmeşas, utilises the works of Mammaṭa and Ruyyaka in its treament of poetic figures in the last two chapters (vii-viii). After a general discussion of the definition of Kāvya in ch. i it deals in ch. ii with the three Vṛttis, namely, Abhidhā, Lakṣaṇā and Vyañjanā. Ch. iii and iv are devoted to Dhvani, and ch. v-vi deal with three Guṇas, three Rītis, and the Doṣas. The illustrative verses are all composed by Vidyādhara himself and consist of panegyrics of the author's patron Narasiṃha of Utkala.

¹ See ed. Kirtane v. 56. also p. 27; Bhandarkar op. cit. p. lxvii f.

² Aufrecht i. 537 b.

³ Bhandarkar, Rep. 1887-91, p. lxix; Trived, introd. to Bhatti pp. xxiv-xxviii, introd. to Ekāvalī p. xxvii f; Pāthak, introd. to Megha-dūta pp. 11-12. Nandargikar, introd. to Raghu, pp. 1-6, esp. pp. 5-6.

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Edition. ed. K. P. Trivedi in the Bombay Sansk. Series 63, 1903, with the *Taralā* of Mallinātha and introd. and notes. There is another comm. by Prabhākara (b. 1564 A.D.), son of Mādhavabhaṭṭa and grandson of Rāmeśvara Bhaṭṭa.

VIDYĀNĀTHA

(1)

The latest writer that Vidyānātha cites is Ruyyaka (pp. 291, 334), whose lost work Sāhitya-mīmāmsā is also apparently referred to at p. 11. Vidyānātha, in his turn, is quoted extensively but anonymously for definitions of poetic figures by Mallinātha in the latter's many commentaries on the different Kāvyas¹.

This gives us the same broad limits to his date as to that of Vidyādhara; and other considerations make it probable that he was contemporaneous with the latter. The Pratāparudra-yaśo-bhūṣaṇa of Vidyānātha was written, like the Ekāvalī, with the obvious object of panegyrising the king whose name it bears on its title. All the illustrative verses in the work eulogise the same king (also called Vīrarudra or Rudra), who is described as the son of Mahādeva and Munmuḍi or Mummaḍambā (pp. 12, 13, 16, 17, 133); and a short drama, named Pratāparudra-kalyāṇa² after him, is introduced in the third Lhapter to illustrate the characteristics of a drama, discussed in the work itself. He is described as a Kākatīya king³ whose capital was Ekaśilā-nagara in the Tṛliṅga or Andhra country, and who is said to have vanquished, among other kings, the princes of the Yādava family. All these and

- 1 For the quotations, see Trivedi's introd. to the text p. ix.
- 2 Separately entered by Aufrecht i. 349a and published in the Granthamālā vol. i.
- 3 so called, as the Ratnāpaņa explains (p. 10, also Ratnašāņa p. 485) from the goddess Kākati he worshipped.

other details have led K. P. Trivedi to identify Vidyānātha's patron with Pratāparudra the seventh Kākatīya king of Ekaśilā or Warangal, whose inscriptions date between 1298 and 1317 A D.¹, and who is placed by Sewell between 1295 and 1323 A.D., and by Sesagiri Sastri between 1268 and 1319 A.D.² The Yādava king referred to, therefore, seems to be Rāmacandra, sixth ruler of the Yādavas of Devagiri, whose dates are 1271 to 1309 A.D.³ We may, therefore, assign Vidyānātha approximately to the end of the 13th and beginning of the 14th century. It has been suggested that the author's real name was Agastya Paṇḍita, and Vidyānātha was his title.

Vidyānātha's work, like the Ekāvalī, consists of Kārikā and Vṛtti with illustrative verses in praise of the author's patron. In nine Prakaraṇas it deals respectively with the topics of Nāyaka, Kāvya, Nāṭaka, Rasa, Doṣa, Guṇa, Śadālaṃkāra, Arthlāṃkāra and Miśrālaṃkāra. In the third Prakaraṇa, as we have already noted, it illustrates the requirements of a Nāṭāka by a model drama. Its treatment is based mainly on Mammaṭa, Ruyyaka, Bharata and Dhanañṣaya, but it is more comprehensive than the Ekāvalī inasmuch as it includes Dramaturgy.

(2)

Kumārasvāmin

Vidyānātha's commentator Kumārasvāmin describes himself as the son of Kolācala Mallinātha', the well-known

- 1 Eggeling (IOC iii, p. 338) gives the dates 1268 and 1319.
- 2 See Trivedi, introd. pp. xvi-xxii. The correct dates appear to be 1298 and 1323 A. D.
 - 3 Bhandarkar, Early Hist. p. 92.
- 4 Nārāyaṇa, who describes himself as a descendant of Kumāra-svāmin, gives the genealogy of his ancestors in his comm. on Campū-rāmāyaṇa (Madras Catalogue xxi, Kāvya p. 8212) thus: Mallinātha—Kapardin—Mallinātha Peddubhaṭṭa—Kumārasvāmin. He speaks of Peddubhaṭṭa as a Mahāmahopādhyāya, a commentator on Naiṣadha and as having been bathed in gold by Sarvajña (Śingabhūpāla?).

commentator and author of Taralā on the Ekāvalī. He may, therefore, be placed in the beginning of the 15th century. The title of his commentary Ratnāpaṇa (wrongly called Ratnārpaṇa by Eggeling op. cit. p. 338b, following Burnell 36b) signifies, as he himself explains, a market-place where are sold jewels of poetic sentiments, collected together by Vidyānātha, after they have been fashioned on the grindstone furnished by the merits of the hero.

The quotations in the Ratnapana are numerous and include, besides other well-known names, the Śrngāra-prakāśa of Bhoja, the Ekāvalī, the Sāhitya darpana (p. 245), Cakravartin and his Samjīvanī commentary on Ruyyaka. Śingabhūpāla and his Rasārnava-sudhākara, the author's own father Mallinātha and brother Peddayārya, Bhatta Gopāla and Narahari Sūri. There are numerous references to a work on Rasa, called Bhāva-prakāśa, which is now known to be a work of Śāradātanaya (q.v.). Mention is also made of Vasantarājīya Nātya-śāstra, its author Vasantarāja being apparently king Kumāragiri (q,v) of the same name, who was a patron of Kātayavema. A Kavikalpadruma-kāra is also cited at p. 170, but this is a work on grammar (dhātu-pātha) by Vopadeva. We know nothing of the Nataka-prakasa cited at p. 113. On Alamkāra sudhānidhi cited on p. 44, see below under Appayya Dīkşita who also quotes the same work. Rasa-nirūpana may be by Narahari Sūri, and the Sāhityacintāmani is probably the work of the same name composed ly Vīranārāyana (q.v.).1

There is another incomplete commentary, called Ratnaśāṇa, included in the Bombay edition of the text. From the
colophon of a MS of this work (Madras Trm, II, C, 1923), it
appears to have been composed by Tirumalācārya, son of
Rāmānujācārya of Śukavaṭa family and disciple of Vātsya
Rāmānujācārya. He is said to have lived in Rāmatīrtha near
Koṭipallī in the Godāvarī district.

¹ For these authors, see chapter on Minor Writers below.

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CHAPTER VIII

FROM VISVANĀTHA TO JAGANNĀTHA

VISVANĀTHA

(1)

Viśvanātha never cites Ruyyaka and Mammata by name; but, like Vidyādhara and Vidyānātha, he draws very considerably upon the works of both. He adopts, for instance, the definitions of the figures upameyopamā and bhrāntimat directly from Ruyyaka, and admits the two figures vikalpa and vicitra which, both Ruyyaka and Jayaratha inform us, were inventions of Ruyyaka's. It is quite possible, as P.V. Kane holds, that the censorious glancing on Mammata's text. reproved by Viśvanātha (ad ii. 14, p. 57), refers in particular to Ruyyaka's Samketa commentary where the latter criticises Mammata on the particular point under discussion. But a surer indication of Viśvanātha's acquaintance with Ruyyaka's works is given by his quotation of the verse bhujanga-kundalivyakta at p. 445 (ad x. 2), which Ruyyaka himself cites (p. 19) as his own from the Srikantha-stava. Visvanatha quotes two other writers who, in all probability, belong to this century, namely, Jayadeva, author of the Gita-govinda,2 and

- 1 For other instances, where Visvanātha is following or criticising Ruyyaka, see P. V. Kane's ed. of the text in the introd. and notes.
- 2 The verse *lirdi vişa-latā* quoted by Viśvanātha at p 506 (ad x. 39) occurs in the Gīta-govinda, ed. N. S. P. iii. 11, p. 58. It is also ascribed to Jayadeva by Śārnagadhara (no. 3460) and Vallabhadeva (no. 1314). Jayadeva is quoted in the Sadukti-karņāmṛta of Śrīdhara and therefore must be placed before 1206 A.D. Buhler and Peterson assign (Kashmir Rep. p. 64 and Subhās° p. 38) 1116 A.D. as the date of Jayadeva, while Haraprasad Sastri gives the date 1175 A.D. (Nouces, 2nd. Ser. 1, P. xxxvii). Jayadeva, however, is said to have been cited by Cāndkavi, who wrote his epic on Pṛthvīrāja of Delhi towards the end of the 12th century (but see WZKM vii, p. 189; JBRAS xi, p. 283). Viśvanātha

Srīharṣa, author of the Naiṣadha.¹ Viśvanatha also quotes a verse kadalī kadalī (ad iv. 3) from Prasanna-rāghava (i. 37) of Jayadeva. Again, the Rāja-taraṅgiṇī iv. 441 is quoted in our text at p. 529, under x. 57a (possibly indirectly through Ruyyaka p. 93); but this work of Kahlaṇa's was not completed till the middle of the 12th century. All this will roughly fix one terminus to the date of Viśvanātha, who cannot thus be placed earlier than the end of the 12th or beginning of the 13th century.

The other more or less terminal date is given by the date of a MS of the Sāhitya-darpaṇa, discovered by Stein at Jammu, which was written in Saṃvat 1440=1384 A.D.² This certainly negatives the date (viz. the middle of the 15th century) assigned by Weber³, Eggeling⁴ and Harichand Sastri⁵, the last of whom makes the unfortunate mistake of identifying Caṇḍīdāsa, referred to as a relative by Viśvanātha, with Caṇḍīdāsa, the Bengali poet of the 15th century. It may be noted that Kumārasvāmin, at the beginning of the 15th century, names and quotes (pp. 245, 248) the Sāhitya-darpaṇa (iii. 146a, 147 and 150).

All this raises the most likely presumption that Viśvanātha should be assigned to a period ranging roughly from 1200 to 1350 A. D. This approximation can be considerably narrowed down if we can draw any chronological inference from a verse in the Sāhity a-darpaṇa (ad iv. 14, p. 232) which refers to a Muhammadan king named Allāvadīna⁶. This

also refers to Lajaka-melaka (p. 176, ad iii. 212) of Sankhadhara, which also belongs to this century.

- 1 P. 526, ad x. 54 (hanūmadādyai°)=Naisadha ix. 122b p. 520, ad. x. 50 (dhanyāsi vaidarbhi)=ibid ii. 116. For the date of Śrīharsa see S. K. De, Hist. of Sansk. Lit. pp. 325-26.
 - 2 Jammu Cat. p. 64, no. 349.
 - 3 Hist. of Sansk. Lit. p 231 (Eng. trans. 1904).
 - 4 IOC in, p. 337. 5 op. cit. p. 115.

⁶ saṃdhau sarvasva-haraṇam vigrahe prāna-nigrahaḥ | al(l)avadīna-nīpatau na saṃdhir na ca vigrahaḥ.

Allävadina or Alävadina¹ may probably be Sultan² Ala-uddin Khalji, whose army invaded the Deccan and seized Warangal. Even if we suppose that the verse in question was composed in the life-time of that Sultan, who died in 1316 A. D., the Sāhitya-darpaṇa may be presumed to have been composed at a date not earlier than 1300 AD. At any rate, if this historical deduction is permissible, we may assign Viśvanātha to a period between 1300 and 1350 A.D., or roughly in the first half of the 14th century³.

(2)

Viśvanātha describes himself as the son of Mahākavi Candraśekhara (p. 583, concluding verses) who appears, like his son, to have been a poet and scholar⁴, as well as a high official⁵ in the court of some king, probably king of Kalinga. Nārāyaṇa, who appears to have written also on some topics of Poetics, is either his grandfather or great-great-grandfather; for in his commentary on the Kāvya-prakāśa, Viśvanātha speaks of Nārāyaṇa as asmat-pitāmaha, while in his Sāhitya-darpaṇa (p. 73, ad iii. 4a), the same person is called asmat-vṛddhapitāmaha. Caṇḍīdāsa, who appears to be different from the Bengal author of the "Dīpikā commentary on Mammaṭa, is also quoted." He should not be confused with Viśvanātha's relative.

- 1 We find both these forms of the name in two inscriptions, see JASB xhiii, p 108 and Bhavanagar inscription $114 = Pr\bar{a}c\bar{i}na-lekha-m\bar{a}l\bar{a}$ ii. 28. In Harşakirti's $D\bar{a}tu-p\bar{a}tha$ this king is referred to as Allavadi (Bhandarkar Rep. 1882-83, p. 43).
- 2 The sanskritised form of this word suratrāna occurs at p. 509 (ad x. 42).
- 3 Cf Kane op. cit. introd.; M. Cakravartı in JASB lxxii (1903), p. 146, N. S 11, 1906, p. 157f; Keith in JRAS, 1911, pp. 848f; Sten Konow, Ind. Drama, p. 3. Prabhākara in his Rasa-pradīpa (1583 A.D.) quotes Sāhitya-darpaņa at pp. 18, 20, 35.
- 4 His verses are cited at pp. 58, 116, 170, 174, while his works, called Puspamālā and Bhāṣārṇava, are referred to at pp. 263 and 316 respectively.
 - 5 Both are described as sāmdhivigrahika-mahāpātra.
 - 6 Visvanātha cites one Purușottama (p. 440, ad ix. 4a). A work

Visvanātha appears to have written a number of works, besides his well-known Sāhitya-darpaṇa; for in it he himself refers to his own productions, namely:

- (1) Rāghava-vilāsa-kāvya (ad vi. 325a, p. 355).
- (2) Kuvalayāśva-carita in Prakrit (ad vi. 326, p. 356).
- (3) Prabhāvatī-pariņaya (ad vi. 182b, p. 320), also referred to in his commentary of Mammata ch. vii.
- (4) Praśasti-ratnāvalī in 16 languages, a karambhaka (ad vi. 337b, p. 358).
- (5) Candrakalā (ad vi 1833 and 184. p. 320-1), a nāţikā. He also wrote a commentary called Kāvyaprakāśa-darpaṇa on Mammaṭa's work; but this was probably composed after he had written his larger independent work on Poetics; for in it he himself refers, while commenting on lakṣaṇā (ch. ii), to the latter work¹. In the Sāhitya-darpaṇa itself he draws very considerably upon Mammaṭa; and although at the beginning of this work, he quotes and criticises at some length Mammaṭa's definition of poetry, he distinctly reproves all irreverent criticism of this venerable writer, who is declared to be his own upajīvya (ad ii. 14 p. 57). In this commentary Visvanātha refers to a Narasimha-kāvya by himself²

It is not clear on what grounds Weber and Eggeling's state that the Sāhitya-darpaṇa was composed "on the banks of the Brahmaputra", i. e. in Eastern Bengal It appears on the contrary that Viśvanātha was probably a native of Kalinga which we may take at this date to have been co-extensive roughly with Orissa and Ganjam. In his commentary on

called Kavitāvatāra is attributed to one Purusottama in Burnell 54a — On Visvanātha's genealogy in relation to Nārāyana, Candīdāsa and Candrasekhara see Sivaprasad Bhattacharya Visvanātha Kavirāja and his references in JOI, Baroda, iii (1954) pp. 35f.

- 1 eṣāṃ ca ṣodasānāṃ lakṣanā-bhedānām tha darśttāny udāharanum mama sāhitya-darpane'vagantavyāni. Also on figure anumāna ch x): tad uktam matkṛte sāhitya-darpaṇe.
- 2 Anantadasa in his comm. on Sāhitya-d. quotes a verse on p with the words: yathā mama tāta-pādānām vijaya-narasimhe.
 - 3 Cf also Macdonell, Sansk. Lit. p. 434; SCC vii, no. 53, p. 33.

Mammața, he explains certain expression with Oriya equivalents¹; and speaking of his ancestor Nārāyaṇa, he refers to king Narasiṃha-deva of Kalinga (presumably Narasiṃha II. about 1279-1306), at whose court Nārāyaṇa vanquished one Dharmadatta², who is also referred to in the Sāhitya-darpaṇa³ at pp. 73, 79. It is probably in praise of one of the Narasiṃhas of Kalinga that Viśvanātha's lost poem Narasiṃhavijaya was written.

(3)

Though not a work of much originality, the Sāhitya-darpaṇa gives in ten chapters a comprehensive treatment of all topics of Poetics including Dramaturgy. The distribution of topics in the different chapters is as follows: (i) Definition of poetry, (ii) Three Vṛttis of word and sense, (iii) Rasa, (iv) Dhvani and Guṇībhūta-vyaṅgya, (v) Establishment of Vyañjanā-vṛtti, (vi) Dramaturgy, (vii) Doşa. (viii) Guṇa (three in number), (ix) Rītis enumerated as four, Vaidarbhī, Gauḍī, Pāñcālī and Lāṭī, (x) Alaṃkāras. The treatment of Dramaturgy is based mostly on Daśa-rūpaka.

The commentaries on Visvanātha are not so numerous or important as to deserve any special enumeration. Of the five commentaries mentioned below, that of Rāmacaraṇa Tarkavāgiśa, dated in Śaka 1622=1700 A.D., has been frequently printed with the text.

- I "vaiparītyam rucuņ kuru" iti pāthah, atra cinku-padam kāsmīrādibhāşāyām aslīlārtha-bodhakam, utkalādi-bhāsāyām dhṛta-vāṇḍakadrava iti, on Mammata v, p. 238 (ed. Jhalakikara).
- 2 Cited also in the Rasa-pradīpa of Prabhākara, son of Bhatta Mādhava (Weber i. 823), in which the Sāhitya-darpaṇa is also quoted. Prabhākara's work was composed in 1583 A. D. For Dharmadatta see Sivaprasad Bhattacharya in the article cited above, p. 360-62.
- 3 yad āhuḥ śrī-kalinga-bhūmaṇḍalākhaṇḍala-mahārājādhirāja-śrīnarasiṃha-sabhāyāṃ dharmadattaṃ sthagayantaḥ sakala-sahṛdayagoṣṭḥīgarışṭḥa-kavi-paṇḍivāsmat-pitāmaha-śrīman-nārāyaṇadāsa-pādāḥ, etc.

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- Commentaries. (1) "Locana by Anantadāsa, son of Viśvanātha, a MS of which is dated 1636 A.D. Aufrecht ii. 171a. An incomplete MS (no. 262, p 65) in Jammu Cat. Ed. as noted above. The commentator is described as son of Viśvanātha himself.
 - (2) "Tippaṇa by Mathurānātha Śukla, a voluminous writer, under whose name Aufrecht makes no less than 64 entries. Apparently the same person as Mathurānātha Śukla, a native of Pāṭalīputra in Mālava, who wrote at Benares in 1783 A.D. the Jyotiḥ-siddḥānta-sāra by order of prince Dalacandra (but see Aufrecht i. 422-23). One Mathurānātha was also author of a comm. on Kuvalayānanda, and may have been the same person. Aufrecht i. 715b.
 - (3) "Vivṛti by Rāmacaraṇa Tarkavāgīśa, a native of Western Bengal. He was a Chattopadhyay Brahman; his home was at Rāyavāṭi in Burdwan district. He dates his commentary in 1700 A. D. Frequently printed with the text in Bengal editions. Also in N. S. P. ed. 1915, as noted above.

- (4) *Prabhā by Gopīnātha. Madras Trm C 712. Gopīnātha is also the author of the Sumanomanoharā comm. on Mammaṭa. See above p. 173. He is probably identical with Gopīnātha Kavirāja who composed, among other works, a commentary on the Raghu-vaṃśa in 1677 A.D. (see Aufrecht i. 163b).
- (5) Vijña-priyā by Maheśvara Bhatṭa, Ed. as noted above. This Maheśvara appears to be the same as Maheśvara Nyāyālaṃkāra who commented also on the Kāvya-prakāśa. Middle of the 17th century. See above p. 167.

KE\$AVA MI\$RA AND \$AUDDHODANI

(1)

Keśava himself tells us that he composed his Alamkāraśekhara at the request of a ruling chief named Māṇikyacandra,
son of Dharmacandra and grandson of Rāmacandra, who is
said to have ruled near Dilhi (Dhilli) and defeated the king of
Kābila (Kabul?). Eggeling¹ is obviously wrong in identifying
him with Māṇikyacandra of Tirabhukti or Tirhut; while
Buhler² did not go further than suggesting that this prince was
not a Kashmirian but ruled or lived in Delhi just before the
Muhammadan conquest. The patron of our author, however,
appears to be Māṇikyacandra of Koṭ-kaṅgra, whose genealogy
corresponds to that given by Keśava and whose date of accession, according to Cunningham³, is 1563 A.D. The literary
activity of Keśava may, therefore, be fixed in the third quarter
of the 16th century.

(2)

The Kārikā-portion of the Alamkāra-śekhara, called Sūtra, is declared to have been based on, if not actually taken from, some lost work of an authority who is cited as bhagavān (or

- 1 IOC no. 1197.
- 2 Kashmir Rep. p. 69.
- 3 Arch. Survey v. 152f, at p. 160. (cf. JASB, 1907, p. 212).

maharşı p. 50) Sauddhodani, Keśava himself apparently assuming the modest rôle of a commentator or interpreter in the running prose Vitti. The name Sauddhodani, apparently Buddhistic, is otherwise unknown in Alamkara literature². Whatever may be the original source of his work. Keśava shows himself conversant with the work of most of his predecessors, and quotes, among more recent writers, Rajasekhara (pp. 32, 67), Bhoja (p. 7), Mahimabhatta, Mammata, the Vagbhatālamkāra, Devesvara and Jayadeva author of Candrāloka. He also quotes one Śrīpāda (pp. 4, 5, 6, 23, 27, 32, 72, 81). who may be his master Sauddhodani himself designated by this honorific term, as well as the author of a Kavi-kalpalatā who is described as a follower of this Śrīpāda³. This Kavikalpalatā-kāra, however, is neither Devesvara nor Arisimha and Amaracandra, whose works also bear a similar title. The passage cited by Keśava in this connexion (pp. 48-9, venyāh sarpāsi-bhrhgālyo) gives a list of more or less conventional words useful for the purpose of conveying a simile or metaphor. A comparison of an almost similar passage in Devesvara (p. 157f), who copies it directly from Arisimha and Amara, andra (pp. 135f), will show enough verbal discrepancy to indicate that neither of these sources constitutes the original from which Kesava quotes. A similar discrepancy is also noticeable in another passage of Keśava's (ratnuni yutra tatrādrau pp. 55-6), which at first sight will seem to have been borrowed from Devesvara (p. 36f) who, however, copies it almost literally from Arisimha and Amaracandra

¹ Mentioned in exalted terms as: alamkāra-vidvā-sūtrakūro bhagavāñ chauddhodanih parama-kārunikaḥ (p. 2). The Alamkāra-sūtra of Sauddhodani is mentioned at pp. 2, 20.

² This Sauddhodani should not be identified with the Sauddhodani mentioned in the mangala verse (where it apparently stands for the name of Buddha) of the Vidagdha-mukha-mandana of Dharmadasa Sūri.

³ śrīpāda-matānusārī kavikalpalatā-kāraķ p. 48, ed. Nir. Sag. Press. Frequently quoted, pp. 4, 5, 23, 27, 32, 72, 83 etc.

(p. 30f). At the same time, Keśava betrays otherwise an acquaintance with Deveśvara's text, from which he reproduces at least one long passage anonymously (nṛpe kīrti-pratāpājñā p. 57f = Deveśvara p. 26f), which Deveśvara himself probably adapted from Arisimha and Amaracandra (p. 27f), but it is curious that Keśava copies here the text of Deveśvara with its variations, rather than the original text of Arisimha Amara on this point.

Keśava cites one Śrīharṣa (p. 71) who may or may not be the same person mentioned by Prabhākara Bhaṭṭa (q. v.) as Śrīharṣa Miśra, or Harṣa (Śrīharṣa) who wrote a Vārttika on the Nāṭya-śāstra. The opinions of a writer called Govardhana are frequently cited by Keśava (pp. 17, 29, 37, 43, 49). There is also a reference to Jayadeva paṇḍita-kavi (p. 17) in the court of an Utkala king. If this person is identical with the poet Jayadeva, who is said to have lived under Lakṣmaṇa-sena of Bengal and who also calls himself Jayadeva paṇḍita-kavi in his Gīta-govinda (xii, p. 171)¹, then it is likely that Govardhana, who is quoted immediately before this reference to Jayadeva, may be the poet of that name, who was Jayadeva's contemporary referred to in the beginning of the Gīta-govinda,

Keśava, who is described in the colophon as a Nyāyā-cārya, tells us that he had already composed seven abstruse treatises on the subject before he undertook the composition of his Alamkāra-śekhara. Two of these are apparently those which are mentioned in the text as his own under the citations Alamkāra-sarvasva (p. 9) and Vākya-ratna (p. 12) or Kāvya-ratna (p. 72). A Kāvya-ratna is mentioned in Oppert ii. 6237.

The Alamkāra-sekhara written in the form of Kārikā and Vṛtti, consists of eight chapters (called Ratnas) and 22 sections (called Marīcis) with topics distributed as follow: i. Definition

¹ The verse unmīlan-madhu-gandha° of the Gīta-govinda (ed. N. S. P. p. 29) is quoted anonymously by Kesava at p. 6, as an instance of the Gaudī Rīti.

of Kāvya, etc. ii. Three Rītis (Vaidarbhī, Gaudī and Māgadhī), Ukti, Mudrā with their varieties. iii. Three Vrttis (Abhidhā etc), iv-vi. Eight Dosas of Pada, twelve of Vakya and eight of Artha. vii-viii. Five Gunas of Sabda (Samksiptatva, Udāttatva, Prasāda, Ukti and Samādhi), four Guņas of Artha (Bhāvikatva, Suśabdatva, Paryāyokti and Sudharmitā), ix. Cases when Doşas become Gunas, x-xii. Eight Alamkāras of Sabda and fourteen Alamkāras of Artha. Some of the names and definitions are different from those of orthodox writers, xiii-xvii. Devoted mostly to Kavi-śīksā topics—poetic convention, mode of describing different objects etc. xviii-xix. Certain verbal tricks. Samasyā-pūrana etc. Rasas, topics of Nāyaka-nāyikā, Bhāvas etc. xx. Nine xxi-xxii. Rasa-dosas; and letters favourable to each Rasa. It will be seen that although Kesava Misra accepts Dhyani and Rasa and the general pattern of orthodox Poetics, he appears yet to follow a different tradition, especially in the treatment of Guna. Dosa and Alamkara. But the difference is not material; for as noted above, he draws largely upon most of his well-known predecessors.

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APPAYYA DĪKŞITA

(1)

Appayya Dīkşita himself furnishes us with a clue to his date. He tells us at the end of his Kuvalayānanda that it was composed at the instance of a South Indian prince

named Venkata1. Aufrecht2, and following him Eggeling3. identify this patron of Appayya with Venkata of Vijayanagara (about 1535 A. D.), while Hultzsch⁴ shows that he was Venkata I of Pennakonda, whose inscriptions range from Saka 1508 to 1535 (=1586 to 1613 A.D.). On the other hand, in the colophon to his Śwādityemani-dīpikā (Hultzsch 1056), Appayya mentions as his patron a prince Cınna Bomma, son of Cinnavīra and father of Lingama Nāyaka. The inscriptions of this chief of Velur (Vellore in the North Arcot district) are dated in Saka 1471 and 1488 (=1549 and 1566 A.D.). In the last verse of the Kuvalayānanda reference is made to Bhatta's commentary Saradagama (on the **Pradvotana** Candrāloka) which in dated 1583 A.D. The extreme limits. therefore, of Appayya's literary activity are 1549 and 1613 A. D. We may thus assign him to the third and fourth quarters of the 16th century; and as he was alive in the time of Venkata I, he may have lived into the beginning of the 17th century. This date is confirmed by the fact that we

- 1 Cf also \$1 168 (ed NSP 1913) which, though occurring also in the text of Jayadeva's Candrāloka, is probably one of Appayya's additions.
- 2 Cat. Bod. 213a. But in his Cat. Cat. 1. 22a and 11. 5a, he assigns the dates, viz. end of the 15th and end of the 16th century respectively. Regnaud's conjecture (Rhétorique Sansk. p. 375) that Appayya flourished in reign of Kṛṣṇarāja of Vijayanagara in 1520 A.D. is not correct.
 - 3 *10C* iii, p. 335.
- 4 Rep. of South Ind. Sansk. MSS ii, p. xiii and El iv. 271 (cf JASB 1907, p 211).
- 5 South Ind. inscrip. 1, p. 69f and p. 84. Also see H. D. Velankar in Cat. JBRAS., 1. no. 141
 - 6 IA xiii p. 155 and El iii p. 238 Table.
- 7 He is said to have lived to the ripe old age of 73 (see introd. to Halasyanatha's ed. of Kuvalayānanda p. 15). The usually accepted date is 1552-1624 or 1554-1626 A.D. But the date 1520-1593 is argued in JOR, Madras. 1928, pp. 225-237 and 1929, pp. 140-160. See also the Madras Univ. ed. (1929) of Śwādvaita-nirṇaya (introd.) and Vanivilas Press ed. of Yādavābhyudaya vol. ii—(introd.), p. ivf. where the date argued is between 1552 and 1624. Venkata, author of the Viśvaguṇādarśa tells us that he hailed from Kāñcī (or Conjeevaram). That Appayya is

find Appayya cited by Kamalākara Bhatta in the first quarter of the 17th century and attacked by Jagannātha about the same time.

(2)

We find the author himself using the forms Appa or Apya of his name in his Kuvalayānanda, but it is variously spelt as Appaya and Appayya. A champion of Southern Saivism he was a versatile and prolific writer, and tradition ascribes to him more than one hundred works, of which Aufrecht mentions nearly seventy. A Tamil Brahman of Bharadvāja gotra, he was the fifth son of Rangarāja (or Rangarājādhvarin) and had a brother called Apya or Ācchān.

Appayya is notable in Sanskrit Poetics for his three works. viz. the Kuvalayānanda, the Citra-mīmāṃsā and the Vṛtti-vārttika. Of these, the last seems to have been his earliest work, after which comes the Citra-mīmāṃsā which is referred to in his Kuvalayānanda. None of these works displays much originality; and we have seen that his Kavalayānanda was directly based on Jayadeva's Candrāloka, up to the section on the figure hetu.² To the "one hundred" Alaṃkāras of Jayadeva Appayya, however, adds fifteen, and this perhaps constitutes

later than the 14th century is shown by the fact that he cites the *Ekāvalī*, *Pratāparudra-yaśobhūṣaṇa* and *Saṃṣīvanī* comm. of Jayaratha.

- 1 So states Nīlakantha Dīksita in his Nīlakantha-vija) a 1. 44. The question is complicated by the fact that no less than four Appayya Dīkṣitas belonged to the family in three generations. See V. Raghavan in Proceedings of A-1.O.C, Tirupati 1941, pp. 176-80. In the New Catalogus Catalogorum (ed. V. Raghavan), Madras 1949, pp 197-200, there are no less than 58 entries after careful sifting. This Catalogue may be consulted for Appayyas II, III, and IV also.
 - 2 See above p. 200.
- In the text of the Kuvalayānanda-kārikā with Āśādhara's commentary, which is translated by Schmidt and published by the N. S. P. 1906, the fourth chapter dealing with śabdālamkāras is an interpolation, or rather mistaken incorporation into the text of Appayya of a chapter from Cirañjīva Bhaţţācārva's Kāvya-vilāsa (IOC 111, pp. 340-44). as the

the largest number of such figures mentioned in any Alamkāra work, and forms the climax in the process of multiplying the poetic figures with endless minute differentiation. The Citramīmāmsā is a more independent work; but it was probably left incomplete. In most of the MSS, as well as in the printed texts, it goes up to the atiśayokti-prakarana and breaks off with the curious verse:

apy ardha-citranīmāmsā na mude kasya māmsalā/ anūrur iva gharmāmsor ardhendur iva dhūrjateh//

which, if authentic, implies that the work was designedly left incomplete. But in some MSS there is an additional verse, which gives a list of the figures to be dealt with (pratipādyā-laṃkāra-sūcī), which ends with the mention of utprekṣā, and omits atiśayokti which ought to come after it. The Candrikā commentary of Vaidyanātha supports this tradition with the remark: utprekṣā-granthānantaraṃ citra-mīmāmsā na kvāpi dṛṣyate; but the commentary of Dharānanda, son of Rāmabala, includes and comments on the section on atiṣayokti coming thereafter. Appayya's own references to the Citra-mīmāṃsā in Kuvalayānanda (pp. 78, 86, 133) relate to the treatment of the figures of śleṣa, prastutāṅkura and arthāntaranyāsa, which are wanting in the present-day text. The printed text of the Citramīmāṃsā-khaṇḍana of Jagannātha goes only as far as apahnuti. Appayya's third work, the Vṛtti-vārttika,

colophon at the end of that chapter itself shows. It is well known that the Kuvalcyānanda deals only with Arthālamkāras.

- 1 e.g. $\iota \dot{\upsilon} C$ in p. 336, ends with atisayokti at fol. 72a; Madras Trm A 1104: \$g\$ ii, p. 82.
- 2 Ed. V. L. Panshikar, Kāvyamālā 38, NSP, 1907. In the text published in the *Pandit* xiii, the work ends with *utprekṣā*, and the *atišayokti* is wanting.
- 3 upamā sahopameyopamayāthānanvayaḥ smaraṇaṃ rūpaka-pariṇati-saṃsaya bhrāntimad ullekha-nihnavotprekṣāḥ // This verse occurs at the end of the text printed in the Pandit and in the India Office MS referred to. The MS kha used in the Kāvyamālā ed. (see p. 101 fn) ends with utprekṣā. In Madras Cat. xxii, MS no. 12879 ends with atisayokti, but nos. 12880-81 end with utprekṣā.

which is a short dissertation, after a work called Kāvya-saraņi, on the three functions of word and its sense, is also incomplete as it stands; for it consists only of two chapters on the two functions abhidhā and lakṣaṇā, and the third chapter which should deal with the third function vyanjanā is wanting.

Appaya appears to have written another work, called Lakşaṇa-ratnāvalī on the Lakṣaṇas of Rūpaka.

Appayya Dīkşita, second son of Āccān Dīkşita who was a brother of our Appayya, wrote an Alamkāra-tilaka,

(3)

Appayya's works appear to have started some controversies in his time. Thus Jagannātha, who flourished immediately after him, not only attacked Appayya in his Rasa-gaṅgā-dhara and stigmatised him as a slavish imitator of Ruyyaka and Jayaratha, but also wrote his Citramīmāṃsā-khaṇḍana to demolish Appayya's work of that name. Bhīmasena, in his commentary on Mammaṭa, also refers to a Kuvalayānanda-khaṇḍana written by himself as an attack on Appayya's other work; and we find Atirātrayajvan, a younger brother of Nīlakaṇtha Dīkṣita and descendant of Appayya's, taking up the cudgel to defend the fair fame of his ancestor in his Citramīmāmsā-dosa-dhikkāra.²

Among more recent writers and works cited by Appayya, we find the names of the Sāhityacintāmaņi-kāra, Ratnākara, Alamkāra-sudhānidhi (Vrtti-vārttika p. 19) and Kāvya-saraņi,

- 1 See T. R. Cintamani in *JOR*, Madras. iv, 1930, pp. 242-44 (text of a newly discovered fragment).
- 2 The authorship of this work is uncertain. Oppert 4802 ascribes it to Cinna Appayya, younger brother of Nīlakaņtha Dīkṣita, but Hultzsch (ii, p. 126, no. 1281, up to Apahnuti-prakaraṇa) ascribes it to Cinna Appayya's last brother Atirātrayajvan. See New Cat. Cat. 1, p. 200.
- 3 This is probably the work of the same name attributed to Sāyaṇa, younger brother of Mādhava and elder brother of Bhoganātha. But the illustrative verses, which are in praise of Sāyaṇa, appear to have been composed by Bhoganātha. As ministers of Harihara I (1336-55 A.D.) and Bukka (1355-77 A.D.), Sāyaṇa belonged to the 14th century. He is better known as a commentator on Vedic works. An anthology,

the last work (of which nothing is known) being avowedly the model or source of his Vṛtti-vārttika. The Sāhitya-cintāmaṇi, also cited by Kumārasvāmin, is probably the work of the same name by Vīranārāyaṇa (q. v., about 14C0 A.D.). The Alaṃkāra-sudhānidhi is apparently the same work as cited by Kumārasvāmin at p. 44. If the Ratnākara quoted in the Vṛtti-vārttika p. 20 be the same as Ratnākara cited extensively by Jagannātha in his two works, then it refers to the Alaṃkāra-ratnākara of Sobhākaramitra, and should be distinguished from Rasa-ratnākara cited by Mallinātha on Meghadūta. A Kāvyāloka is cited by Appayya in his Citra-mīmāṇsā (pp. 27, 53)

(4)

THE COMMENTATORS ON APPAYYA

The popularity of the Kuvalayananda as a convenient manual is indicated by the many commentaries on it, the more important ones of which have been published. The Dīpikā of the poet Āśādhara, son of Rāmajī and disciple of Dharanidhara, has been edited as well as translated. The Alamkāra-sudhā and Şatpadānanda of Nāgeša or Nāgojī Bhatta have not yet found an editor, but the Alamkaracandrikā of Vaidyanātha Tatsat, son of Rāmacandra (or Rāma Bhatta) and grandson of Vitthala Bhatta, has been printed several times in Madras and elsewhere. The more reliable commentary of Gangadharadhvarin or Gangadhara Vājapevin, son of Devasimha-sumati of Vādhūla-gotra and pupil of Visvarupa Yati of Benares, probably preserves the text and the Appayya-traditions better, inasmuch as the commentator tells us that Appayya was the teacher of a brother of his grandfather, and he himself takes great pains to settle the readings of his text. Other less known commentaries are mentioned below.

called Subhāşita-sudhānidhi is ascribed to him (Proc. A-I.O.C. Baroda 1935, pp. 121-24.

The Citra-mīmāṃsā has been commented upon by Dharānanda, son of Rāmabala of Vasiṣṭha-gotra and grandson of Thākura, who had, besides the author's father, two other sons named Pūraṇadāsa and Devadāsa. The commentator was disciple of Paramānanda and was born in Bharatapura. He wrote also a commentary on Mṛcchakaṭika (Madras Cat. xii, 12625).

No commentary on the Vṛtti-vārttika is known.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Kuvalayānanda

Editions. The work as a popular text-book has been printed frequently at Poona, Madras, Bombay, Calcutta and Benares in Devanagari as well as in Grantha, Telugu and Bengali characters, with or without commentaries. The earliest edition appears to be that printed in Puthi form from Pathsala Press, Poona 1842 (2nd ed. 1845). It is not necessery to enumerate here all the editions, but the following publications in Devanagari are noteworthy. Without commentary: (1) by P. R. Subrahmanya Sarman with Eng. trs. and notes, Banerjee Press, Calcutta 1903. With the Candrika commentary of Vaidyanatha Tatsat (2) the Poona ed. mentioned above. (3) ed. Jivananda Vidyasagar, Satya Press, Calcutta 1847 etc. (4) ed. Satyavrata Samasrami in Pratna-karma-nandinī, Satya Press, Calcutta 1874. (5) ed. Kashinath Vasudev Khandekar, Jagadisvara Press, Bombay 1884. (6) printed in oblong Puthi form, Kashi Samskrita Press, Benares 1879. (7) ed. Vasudev L. Panshikar, Nir. Sag Press, Bombay 1907 (2nd ed.), 1913 etc. (8) ed. Govinda Sastri, Venkatesvara Press, Bombay 1911. (9) the Madras eds. are mostly in Grantha (1870, 1881) or Telugu characters (1870, 1895). With the Rasika-rañjanī comm. of Gangādhara Vājapeyin. (10) ed. R. Halasyanath Sastri, Kumbhakonam 1892. With the Alamkara-dīpikā comm. of Āśādhara, (11) ed. Vasudev L. Panshikar, Nirnay Sag. Press, Bombay 1909;

- (12) the same, with text trs. into German by R. Schmidt, Berlin 1907, along with Rāmadeva Cirañjīva's Kāvyavilāsa. See also Bibliography under Candrāloka above p. 204f. (Our references are to the NSP ed. of 1913 by V. L. Panshikar, which also contains the Candrikā comm.).
- Commentaries. (1) Alamkāra-candrikā of Vaidyanātha Tatsat. Ed. as above. Published many times with the text. MSS: SCC vii, 1, 29; Madras Cat. xxii, no. 12862-67; IOC iii, no. 270-72, p. 33. For a list of editions see BORI MSS Cat. xii, pp. 182-83. Mitra in Bik. Cat. no 607, p. 213 gives a wrong impression of the work. Vaidyanātha also wrote a commentary on Mammaṭa's Kav. Prak. (q.v.) which in dated in 1684 A.D. See above p. 170.
 - (2) Alaṃkāra-dīpikā by Āśādhara. Printed by NSP and translated, as above. Āśādhara comments only on the Kārikās, but he is not aware of Jayadeva's Candrāloka. Āśādhara himself appears to have added what is called an Uddiṣṭa-prakaraṇa of about 21 Kārikās with pertinent comm. See BORI MS Cat. xii, no. 153, p. 174. Āśādhara also wrote Kovidānanda and Triveṇikā (see under Minor Writers below). He should not be confused with Āśādhara who wrote a commentary on Rudraṭa; see above p. 93.
 - (2) Rasika-rañjanī by Gangādharādhvarin or Gangādhara Vājapeyin. Printed from Kumbhakonam as noted above. MSS: Aufrecht i. 113a (the attribution to Appayya himself is wrong, as corrected later), ii. 22b; Madras Cat. xxii, 12868-70; also see Tanjore Cat. ix, no. 5205, pp. 4024-27. This commentator describes Appayya as asmatpitāmaha-sahodara-desikendra; but according to tradition the commentator lived under the Tanjore prince Śāhajī (1684-1711 A.D.). Originally he was a native of Tiravālangādu in Chingleput district. Also wrote some comms. on philosophical works.
 - (4) Alamkāra-sudhā by Nāgojī Bhaṭṭa. First quarter of the 18th century. Nāgojī is said to have written also

another commentary on Kuvalay° called Şaţpadānanda, or in full Vişamapada-vyākhyāna Şaṭpadānanda; see Jammu Cat. nos. 1190 and 1191; SCC viii. 28. As its name indicates, the latter commentary probably deals only with difficult words and passages. The two commentaries are often confused. In this last commentary, Nāgojī refers to his °Marma-prakāśikā on Jagannātha's work. Extracts of both in Stein pp. 270-271.

- (5) Kāvya-mañjarī by Nyāyavāgīśa Bhaṭṭācārya. Aufrecht i. 113a. Is he identical with Rāmacandra Nyāya-vāgīśa, son of Vidyānidhi (q.v.) and author of Kāvya-cundrīkā?
- (6) Comm. by Mathurānātha. Aufrecht i. 113a. See above p. 217, bibliography under Visvanātha.
- (7) "Tippaṇa by Kuravirāma referred to in the introductory verse of his comm. on the Viśvaguṇādarśa; Hultzsch i, extr. p. 57, no. 21. For the author who also wrote on Dramaturgy see above p. 127 (under Dhanañjaya). As Venkṭādhvarin, author of the Viśvaguṇādarśa, is known to be a grandson of Appayya's, Kuravirāma, who commented on this poem, could not have been earlier than the middle of the 17th century.
 - (8) Laghvalamkāra-candrikā by Devīdatta. SCB 830.
- (9) Budha-rañjanī by Vengala Sūri. The colophon to some MSS describes him as Śrī-rāmabhūpāla-sabhābhūṣaṇa. Ed. in Telugu characters, Bharati Nilaya Press, Madras 1882. Also included in the Palghat ed. of Candrāloka, see under Candrāloka, p. 204. This is really a comm. on the Arthālaṃkāra-section of Candrāloka, which is co-extensive with the text of Appayya's Kuvalayānanda.
- (10) An anon. comm. in *BORI MSS Cat.* xii, no. 155, p. 177.

Citra-mīmāmsā

Editions. (1) ed. Rama Sastri Tailanga in the Pandit xiii, 1891.

(2) With Citramimämsä-khandana, ed. Sivadatta, and

- V. L. Panshikar. Nir. Sag. Press. Bombay 1893, 1907 (our references are to the 2nd ed. of 1907).
- Commentaries. (1) Sudhā by Dharānanda, son of Rāmabala of Vasiṣṭha-gotra. Comments up to Atiśayokti. Madras Cat. xii, 12884-86 (extract). Dharānanda also wrote commentaries on the Anargha-rāghava (Madras Cat. xxi. Kāvya, no. 12444, p. 8355) and on Mṛcchakaṭika (ibid, no. 1265, p. 8475). The last-named comm. was composed in 1814 A.D. In it he gives his genealogy and an account of himself, from which we learn that he was son of Rāmabala of Bharatapura, grandson of Ṭhākura and disciple of Paramānanda.
 - (2) Gūḍhārtha-prakāśikā by Bālakṛṣṇa Pāyaguṇḍa. Aufrecht ii. 38b. He should be distinguished from Bāla-kṛṣṇa Bhaṭṭa, author of Alaṃkāra-sāra. See chapter on Minor Writers below.
 - (3) Citrāloka. SCB 106.

Vrtti-vārttika

Editions. (1) ed. Rama Sastri Tailanga in the *Pandit* xii, 1890. (2) ed. Sivadatta and K. P. Parab, Nir. Sag. Press. Bombay 1893. Our references are to the N.S.P. 2nd ed. of 1910

Lakşana-ratnāvalī

Ed. T. R. Chintamani in JOR Madras, iv, 1930, pp. 242-44 (a fragment). An incomplete Grantha MS entitled Lakşaṇa-ratnāvalī-vyākhyā without the name of the author is noticed in Tanjore Cat. xi, no. 5295, p. 4079; but it is probably a different work which appears to deal with Dramaturgy.

JAGANNĀTHA

In his Bhāminī-vilāsa Jagannātha tells us¹ that he passed his youth under the patronage of the emperor of Delhi, from

1 dillīvallabha-pāņipallava-tale nītam navīnam vayah, ed. Grantna-mālā vol. iv, śl 32. This verse is wanting in the N.S.P. ed. 1894. The

whom, we are told elsewhere, he received the title of Pandita-This emperor seems to have been Shah Jahan (1628-1658). He also seems to have lived under the protection of Nawab Asaf Khan (d. 1641), brother of Nur Jahan and a nobleman in the court of Shah Jahan, in whose praise he wrote his Asapha-vilāsa and who is also referred to in verses quoted in his Rasa-gangādhara (p. 166 sudhīva vaņī; 457 yuktam tu yāte, referring to Asaf's death). In the latter work, there is also a reference in a verse (p. 521) to Nuradīna which is apparently the Sanskritised form of one of the names of Jahangir (1605-1627), Shah Jahan's father. Shah Jahan came to the throne in 1628 A. D., and was thrown into prison in 1658 A.D. In his Jagad-ābharana Jagannātha eulogises king Jagatsimha of Udaipur (1628-1654) and in his Prānābharana king Prānanārāyana of Kāmarūpa (1633-1666); but they are essentially identical works which have been utilised, with certain change of names and addition of verses, to eulogise two patrons. It seems, therefore, Jagannatha enjoyed the patronage of four rulers. Jahangir, Shah Jahan, Jagatsimha and Pranaparayana at different periods of life. His literary activity, therefore, lay in the second and third quarters of the 17th century; and it extended roughly from about 1620 to 1660 A. D. Nagesa Bhatta commented upon his Granthamālā text is published with the comm. of Mahādeva Dīksita who claims to be a grandson of Jagannatha himself. The phrases dilli-narapati and dillisvara occur also in Rasa-gangādhara and other works (see Aryendra Sarma, Panditarāja-kāvya-samgraha, Osmania Univ. 1958, p. vii for references).

1 See citation from Āsapha-vilāsa given in introd. to Kāvyamālā ed. of Rasa-gangādhara p. 2 fn.; also Nāgeša on Rasa-gang p. 3. The text of the Āsapha-vilāsa appears to contain lacuna and ends abruptly. The poet Paṇḍita-rāja, cited in the anthology Padyāmṛta-tarangiṇī of Haribhāskara, whose commentary on the Vṛtta-ratnā ara was composed in 1676 A.D. (Bhandarkar, Rep. 1877-91, p. lxii and Rep. 1883-84. p. 60) is probably our author. There is also a commentator on Mammata named Paṇḍitarāja (q.v.) who is a different author. Autrecht (11. 40a), making a confusion between the two, attributes the Kāvya-prakāša-tīkā to our Jagannātha.

Rasa-gangādhara in the beginning of 18th century, while Jagannātha himself attacks Appayya Dīkşita who lived in the third quarter of the 16th century.

(2)

Jagannātha describes himself as son of Peru³ (or Perama³) Bhaṭṭa and Lakṣmī. He was, like Appayya, a South Indian writer, being a native of Tailaṅga⁴ (Telugu country), and belonged to the Veṅgināḍu, Vegināṭi or Vegināḍa family of Brahmans⁵. His father was reputed for his learning, having been, as Jagannātha himself tells us,⁴ taught the Vedānta by Jñānendra-bhikṣu, the Nyāya-vaiśeṣika by Mahendra Paṇḍita, the Pūrva-mīmāṃsā by Khaṇḍadeva and the Mahābhāṣya by Śeṣa Vīreśvara. Our author learnt these subjects from his father, and also from one of his father's teachers, Śeṣa Vīreśvara. Very little is known of his personal history, although curious tales about his fondness for a Muhammadan woman, named Lavaṅgī, and his death by plunging into the sacred river Ganges have gathered round his name.¹ Jagannātha was also the author of several

- 1 On Jagannātha see V. A. Ramaswami Sastri, Jagannātha Paņģita (reprinted from Journal of Annamalai Univ. 111-11) and Aryendra Sarma in the work cited above. Ramaswami Sastri gives Jagannātha's date as 1590-1665.
 - 2 Rasa-gang° 1. 3.
 - 3 concluding verse to his Prāṇābharaṇa. 4 Prāṇābharaṇa śl. 52.
 - 5 colophon to Bhāminī-vilāsa. 6 Rasa-gang° i. 2.
- 7 P. K. Gode, in Studies in Ind. Lit. History ii, 1954, pp. 452-59, finds the earliest mention of the tradition in a MS dated 1843 A.D. But Acyuta Rāya, whose Sāhitya-sāra is dated in 1831 A.D., discusses in his commentary on the Bhāminī-vilāsa (ed. NSP, Bombay 1933) the autobiographical significance of the lyrics in that work and of verses like yavanī navanīta-komalāngī often attributed to Jagannātha. See also L. R. Vaidya in the introd. to his ed. of the Bhāminī-vilāsa. For a full discussion of the Lavangī episode see V. A. Ramaswami Sastri, op. cit., pp. 19-21; P. K. Gode in Bhāratīya Vidyā iv, 1942, 57-62 and in Rāja-sthāna Bhāratī (Bikaner) ii, 1948, pp. 45-49. Aryendra Sarma assumes the Lavangī verses (given on p. 190, nos. 582-88) to be genuine.

poetical works, besides writing the Rasa-gangādhara, the latest yet not the least important work on Poetics, and the Citramīmāṃsā-khaṇḍana. He also wrote a grammatical work, directed against Bhaṭṭojī Dīkṣita's famous commentary Manoramā, and called it Manoramā-kuca-mardana.

Both the rhetorical works of Jagannātha have been obtained incomplete. The printed editions of the text of the Rasagangādhara go up to the treatment of uttarālamkāra and break off with an incomplete verse; and so do most MSS noticed in the various reports and catalogues. Nāgeśa or Nāgojī Bhaṭṭa's commentary also ends with the same section. In conformity to a pun in the word gangādhara in the title, the work was apparently planned to consist of five heads (ānana) or chapters, of which we have got only one complete and another incomplete chapter² The topics covered by the

- 1 Some of these have been published by the N.S.P. For a list, see introd. to Jagannatha's Rasa-gang (N. S. P. ed.); Aufrecht i. 196b. Kavyamala Gucchaka i, p. 79; and Aryendra Sarma in the work cited. These are: (1) Amrta-lahari (Km. Gucchaka ii) (2) Asapha-vilasa. praise of Asaf Khan (ın Aryendra Sarma, op. cit.) (3) Karuna-lahari (Km. Gucchaka ii) (4) Gangā-laharī or Pīyūşa-laharī (ed. N. S. P. Bombay 1930) (5) Jagadābharaņa, praise of Jagatsimha of Udaipur (6) Prānābharana, praise of Prānanārāyana of Kāmarūpa (Km Gucchaka ii; 51 verses in different metres) (7) Bhāminī-vilāsa (in four Samullāsas on Anyokti, Śrngāra, Karuna and Śānti, ed. NSP 1894) (8) Manoramā-kuca-mardana, directed against Bhattojī Dīksita's Manoramā (9) Yamunavarnana-campū (quoted in Rasa-g. pp. 19, 128) (10) Laksmilaharī (Km. Gucchaka ii) (11) Sudhā-laharī (Km. Gucchaka i). Of these nos. 3, 6 and 11 are quoted in the Rasa-gangā°, e.g. \$1 60=p. 36; \$1 4= p. 56; \$1 1 = p. 20; as also Gangā-laharī p. 243 (samṛddham saubhāgyam), 491 (samutpattih); Bhāminī-vilāsa p. 402 (digante śrūyante), 403 (pura-sarasi). The Pañca-laharyah (five laharis) are mentioned at p. 109.
- 2 It cannot be determined whether the work was completed; but it was certainly composed before Jagannātha wrote his Citramīmāṃsā-khaṇḍana, the second verse of which refers to the Rasa-gaṅgādhara. In Citramīmāṃsā-khaṇḍana, however, a reference is made to Udā-haraṇālaṃkāra-prakaraṇa of Rasa-g. (višeṣas tu udāharanālaṃkāra-prakaraṇe rasa-gangādharād avaseyaḥ, p. 12), but this Prakaraṇa is not found in the extant text of Rasa-g.

Uttamottama, Uttama, Madhyama and Adhama; Rasa and Bhāvas; Guṇas, whether three or ten. In the second Ānana we have divisions of Dhvani, with a discussion of Abhidhā and Lakṣaṇā, after which comes treatment of Upamā and other poetic figures, enumerated as 70; but it is incomplete. The work is written in the form of Sūtra and Vṛtti. The Citramīmāṃsā-khaṇḍana, directed against Appayya's work of that name, also goes as far as the apahnuti-section and does not deal with utprekṣā and atiśaya which are found in some MSS of the Citra-mīmāṃsā. There is a reference to a matter to be dealt with in the Nidarśanālaṃkāra-prakaraṇa (p. 101: adhikaṃ tu nidarśanālaṃkāra-prakaraṇe cintayiṣyate) which Jagannātha obviously contemplated writing.

(3)

Of comparatively recent writers, Jagannatha, besides citing Mammata, Ruyyaka and Jayaratha extensively, refers to and quotes Vidyādhara (p. 254), Vidyānātha (p. 162). Viśvanātha (and the Sāhitya-darpana, p. 7) and Appayya, and refers very often to the navyāh (pp. 25, 149, 240, 313, 429, 478). The scathing criticism which he levels against Appayya as a slavish imitator of Ruyyaka and Jayaratha was, no doubt, prompted by the zeal of eclipsing the fame of another South Indian writer in the same field. Jagannatha also cites Śrīvatsalānchana (p. 39), apparently the commentator on Mammata, an unknown Alamkara-bhasyakara (pp. 239, 365, also referred to by Jayaratha), and Ratnākara (pp. 202, 207, 209, 211, 221, 225, 281, 313, 480, 492 etc.) which last name is also cited by Appayya. Jagannātha also refers to a work called Alamkāra-ratnākara (pp. 163, 165). anonymous Alamkāra-ratnākara is mentioned in Burnell 54a; but Bühler¹ describes a work of that name by Sobhākaramitra, son of Trayiśvaramitra. Peterson informs us² that

¹ Kashmir Rep. App. 11 no. 228, p. cxxviii.

² Rep. i p. 12. Buhler (Report 1877) mentions a small work called

the Kashmirian poet Yasaskara extracted some sūtras on Alaṃkāra¹ from a work called Alaṃkāra-ratnākara by Sobhākaramitra, and illustrated them in his Devī-stotra by composing verses in praise of Devī, as the opening words of the latter work themselves show³. The work of Yasaskara in Stein is for this reason called Alaṃkarodāharaṇa-saṃnibaddha Devī-stotra.³ The Ratnākara of Jagannātha undoubtedly refers to this Alaṃkāra-ratnākara of Sobhākara-mitra; for the citation from Ratnākara at p. 202=sūtra 11 (as given in Peterson i p. 78).⁴ Jayaratha criticises (pp. 41, 52) the Kashmirian Sobhākara who deviates from Ruyyaka. Jagannātha says (p. 281) that Appayya Dīkṣita follows Alaṃkāra-ratnākara.

(4) Nāgojī Bhatta

I he commentator on the Rasa-gangādhara is Nāgeśa or Nāgojī Bhaţţa, whose name we have already mentioned as a commentator on Mammaţa, Govinda Thakkura, Bhānudatta

Dhvani-gāthā-pañļikā which contains explanations of Prakrit verses, apparently of the Dhvanyāloka; but there is no evidence (except the epithet Kāśmīrakācārya in the colophon) to show that he was the same as the Kashmirian Ratnākara, author of the poem Hara-vijaya. BORI MS no. 182, Cat. xii, p 207.

- 1 These are given in Peterson, op. cit. App. pp. 77-81.
- 2 ratnākarābhyantarato gṛhītvālaṃkāra-sūtrāṇi yathākrameṇa/bandīva devyā gɪrɪrāja-putryāḥ karomi śaṃsan śruti-gocarāṇi. The commentary on this verse explains: śrī-trayīśvara-mitrātmaja-śrī-śobhā-karamitra-viracite'laṇkāra-ratnākare'laṃkāra-sūtrāṇi. The colophon to Bühler's MS of the Alaṃkāra-ratnākara reads trayīśvara-mantra-putrasya as a description of Śobhākaramitra, in which the word mantra is obviously a mistake for mitra. Stein's Jammu MS 58 reads Śobhākaramitra as the name of the author (cf. also WBod 1162).
- 3 The original is also called Alamkāra-ratnodāharaņa and the author Sobhākareśvara. See also Mitra 1822; Hultzsch's Eine Sammlung ind. Handschriften 170.
- 4 The work has been recovered and edited by C. R. Devadbar, Poona 1942. See under Minor Writers below. Jagannatha refers to Alamkara-rainakara in as many as eleven different places (see C. R. Devadhar in Proc. A-1. O.C. Lucknow 1955, pp. 60-65).

and Appayya. He was a Mahratta Brahman (with the surname) Kāla or Kāle), son of Siva Bhatta and Satī. He lived in Benares and was patronised by Rāmasimha of Śrngavera-pura (near Allahabad). He is one of the latter-Jay grammarians, who composed a number of works and commentaries on grammar, poetics and philosophy. He was a pupil of Hari Dīkşita, who was the son of Vīreśvara Dīkşita and greatgrandson of Bhattoji Diksita, the well-known author of the Siddhānta-kaumudī. Bhaţţojī is known as a punil of Seşa Kṛṣṇa, whose son Śeṣa Vīreśvara was, as we have noted, a teacher of Jagannātha himself. Nāgojī was, thus, separated from Jagannatha roughly by two generations, and flourished in the beginning of the 18th century. The India office MS of his commentary on Bhanudatta's Rasa-mañjarī is dated in Māgha Samvat 1769=Feb 1713 A.D.² Nāgojī was the teacher of Vaidyanātha, the Maithili grammarian, and of Gangārāma, the great-grandfather of Manirama (1802 A D.).*

Nāgojī wrote the following commentaries on various works on Poetics: (1) Guru-marma-prakāśikā on Jagannātha's Rasa-gaṅgādhara. (2) Brhat and Laghu Uddyota on Govinda's Pradīpa on Mammaṭa. (3) Udāharana-dīpikā or Pradīpa on Mammaṭa. (4) Alaṇikāra-sudhā and Vişamapadu-vyākhyāna Şaṭpadānanda on Appayya's Kuvalayānanda. (5) Prakāśa on

1 author of the Pada-candrikā and Prakriyā-prakāša, and son and pupil of Sesa Narasımha or Nṛsimha. For the Sesa family of Benares see 14 1912, p. 245f.—Nāgojī's relation to Jagannātha is illustrated thus.



- 2 IOC iii, p. 355; cf. Belvalkar's Systems of Skt. Grammar, p. 49.
- 3 Maņirāma wrote a comm. on Jagannātha's Bhāminī-vilāsa in 1802 A.D. See IOC vii, p. 1526.

Bhānudatta's Rasa-mañjarī. (6) A commentary on Bhānudatta's Rasa-taranginī.

The relative chronology of some works of Nāgojī is fixed by P. K. Gode (*Oriental Thought* 1, no. 2, 1955, pp. 45-52) between circa 1670 and 1750 A.D.

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- Commentaries. (1) Guru-marma-prakāsīkā by Nāgeśa or Nāgojī Bhaṭṭa. Printed in NSP and Benares ed. as noted above. (2) Viṣamapadī. Anonymous. Aufrecht i. 494b.

Citramīmāmsā-khandana

Edition. Ed. Sivadatta and K. P. Parab, with Citra-mīmāṃsā, NSP, Bombay 1893, 1907.

CHAPTER: IX

LATER WRITERS ON RASA AND KAVI-SIKŞĀ WRITERS ON RASA

(1)

\$ĀRADĀTANAYA

Sāradātanaya, author of the Bhava-prakasa, prakasika ot *prakāśana, appears to have been a popular writer on the Rasas and Bhāvas, who is quoted extensively by Kumārasvāmin, and in the Kāma-dhenu on Vāmana, as well as by commentators like Rāghavabhatta, Ranganātha and Vāsudeva.4 He is described as son of Bhatta Gopāla and grandson of Krsna, and great-grandson of Laksmana of Kāśyapa-gotra who is said to have been a resident of Mātarapūjya village in the Merūttara country of the Āryāvarta, and to have written a commentary on the Vedas, called the Vedabhūşana. Our author was so named, because he was considered to have been born by the grace of Sarada, worshipped in Benares. He learnt Nātya-śāstra from Divākara, and says that he is following Abhinavaguptācārya; work in some parts is in reality a condensed epitome chiefly of Bhoja's Śrngāra-prakāśa, which it cites and practically summarises. This fact will place Saradatanaya chronologically later than Bhoja; and the citation of the Bhava-prakasa by Singa-bhūpāla (pp. 20, 139, 169, 202 etc.) will fix its other terminus at 1330 A.D. We may, therefore, assign our author roughly to the period between 1100 and 1300 A.D.

Śāradātanaya cites Agastya (p. 2), Kohala, Mātṛgupta Subandhu and Āñjaneya (p. 251) as authorities on the dramatic

¹ pp. 12, 15, 44, 68, 102, 106, 118, 121, 127, 129, 139, 143, 145, 219, 223 etc.

² e g. on I. 3. 30.

³ on Vikramo°. ed N. S. P. 1885, p. 10.

⁴ on Karpūra-mañj° ed. N.S.P. 1900, pp. 5, 7, etc.

art. The work consists of ten adhikāras as follows: 1 and 2. Bhāva. 3. Avāntara-bhāvabheda-svarūpa. 4. Śṛṅgārālambana-nāyakādi-svarūpa. 5. Nāyaka-bhedāvastha-rasa-bhāva-vikāra. 6. Śabdārtha-sambandha-bheda-prakāra. 7. Nāṭyetivṛttādi-lakṣaṇa. 8. Daśa-rūpaka-lakṣaṇa. 9. Nṛṭyabheda-svarūpa-lakṣaṇa. 10. Nāṭya-prayoga-bheda-prakāra.

The Kavi-kalpalatā cited in this work (pp. 131, 175) is different from works of the same name of Arisimha and Devesvara; for our author believes that the Kāvya-prakāsa borrowed from it. For quotations in Śāradātanaya's work see Adyar Library Bulletin xix, 1-2, pp. 47-51.

Ed. Yadugiri Yatıraj of Melkote and K. S. Ramaswami Sastri in Gaekwad's Orient. Series 1930.

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ŚINGA-BHŪPĀLA

Śinga-bhūpāla, whose name is also given as śinga-dharaṇīśa śinga-rāja or śinga-mahīpati has been identified by Sesagiri Sastri with śingama Nāyaḍu, rājā of Venkaṭagiri who ruled, on the authority of a biographical sketch of the Rājās of Venkaṭagiri, about 1330 A.D.¹ This date is probable, as Mallinātha (on Kumāra 1. 25, iti bhūpālaḥ=Rūsārṇava i. 181) as well as Kumārasvāmin, quotes our author. The introductory verses of the Rasārṇava-sudhākara, attributed to this South Indian prince, show that Lie belonged to the Recarla dynasty, and ruled over the country lying between the Vindhyas and śrīśaila, of which Rājācalam (Rācakoṇḍa) was the hereditary capital. He was the son of Ananta (or Anapota)

I For detaills see \$g\$1, pp. 7-11; also introd to Trivandrum ed. of the Rasārņava°. M. T. Narasimha Aıyangar (ed. Subhāṣita-nīvī, Vanīvilasa Press, Srirangam 1908) states that Śiṅgama Nāyaḍu, our author, was a contemporary of Prauḍha Devarāja of Vijayanagar (1422-1477 A.D.); but P. R. Bhandarkar in his Note on Śinga-bhūpāla (in Proc. First Orient. Conf. Poona, 11, 1916, p 425) doubts the correctness of this date. A. N. Krishna Aiyangar would assign the period between 1340 and 1360 A. D. (Proc. A-1.O.C., Mysore 1937, pp. 264-73).

and Annamāmbā, while his grandfather and great-grandfather were respectively named Śinga-prabhu (or Śingama Nāyaka) and Yācama Nāyaka. Our author was, like Hemacandra, called sarvajna, on account of his great knowledge, and was a patron of letters¹.

The Rasārnava° appears to be mainly based on previous works like Bhoja's Śrngāra-prakāśa (Bhoja cited 57, 69, 149, 168, 190) and Śaradatanaya's Bhava-prakasana (cited pp. 139, 169, 202), although it draws directly on Bharata, Rudrabhatta (cited pp. 29, 30, 87), the Daśa-rūpaka and other authors and works on Rasa and Dramaturgy. The author Singa-bhūpāla is in the third person throughout the work. We have a large number of dramas actually quoted or cited for illustration, among which may be noted: Prabodha-candrodaya (pp. 265. 291). Anargha-rāghava (72, 83, 261, 266, 274), Prasannarāghava (pp. 258, 277), Dhananjaya-vijaya-vyāyoga² (p. 287), Abhirāma-rāghava 3 (anapotanāyakīya pp. 119, 243, 265, 273, Mādhavī-vīthiki (p. 290), Māyākurangikā-īhāmrga **275).** (p. 298), Padmāvatī (p. 263, 266), Kāma datta (p. 285). Rāmānanda (pp. 248, 255, 269), Karuņākandala-anka (pp. 163, 197, 198, 286), Vīrabhadra-vijrmbhana-dima (pp. 272, 274, 276, 278, 298), Maheśvarānanda (p. 275). Ānandakośa-prahasana pp. 40, 41, 278, 291, 297), Śringāra-mañjarī-bhāṇa ⁵ (p. 288),

- 1 Sg\$ loc. cit. 9.—For Viśveśvara Kavicandra's Camatkāra-candrikā panegyrising Śinga-bhūpāla who is called here sarvajña, see under Minor Writers below.
- 2 By Kāncana, son of Nārāyaņa, in Aufrecht i. 266b (ed. Kāvyamālā 54, 1895).
- 3 A drama of this name was written by Manika in Nepal in 1390 A.D. (Lévi 268).
- 4 This little known work is also alluded to in the *Padmaprābhṛtaka-bhāṇa* (ed. Madras 1922), ascribed to Śūdraka. According to the editors of this Bhāṇa (Pref. p. iv), the *Kāma-datta* was a *prakaraṇa* composed by Śūdraka himself. This Bhāṇa is quoted anonymously by Hemacandra (p. 198, l. 12).
- 5 A Śrngāra-mañjarī-bhāna by Gopālarāya, son of Jakkula Venktendra and Vīramāmbā, is mentioned in Hultzsch i, extract p. 77 (no. 385), p. x.

Payodhimathana-samavakāra (p. 290), Kandarpa-sarvasva by himself (p. 151), and Vīrānanda (pp. 159, 160).

The Rasarnava in three Vilasas comprehends, with profuse illustrations, practically all the topics of Dramaturgy and Rasa. The topics, in brief, are as follow: Vilāsa I. Nātyalaksana and Rasa-laksana; qualities and classification of the Nāyaka; his assistants in love affairs: the qualities and classification of the Nayika; incidental treatment of three Rītis (Gaudī, Vaidarbhī and Pāñcālī), four dramatic Vrttis (Sättvatī, Kausikī, Ārabhatī and Bhāratī), Pravrttis Sättvika Bhāvas. II. Detailed treatment of 33 vyabhicāri- and 8 sthāyi-bhāvas; aspects of Rati; other Rasas besides Syngara: opposition and commixture (Samkara) of Rasas; Rasābhāsa. III. Different kinds of Rūpaka and its subjectmatter; five Artha-prakrtis; Patākā-sthānaka; five Avasthās; five Samdhis with all their Angas treated in detail; Bhūsanas; Nātaka as the principal Rūpaka; other types of Rūpaka; languages to be employed; naming of different characters. The printed text in the Trivandrum Skt. Series covers more than 300 pages.

Singa-bhūpāla appears to have written a Nāţaka-parı-bhāṣā¹, which topic is also treated briefly at the end of his Rasārṇava. Singa-bhūpāla also wrote a work entitled Samgīta-sudhākara (ed. Kalivara Vedantavagisa and S. P. Ghosh, New Arya Press, Calcutta 1879) which appears to be a commentary on the Samgīta-ratnākara of Sārngadeva.

Editions. (1) by Sarasvatisesa Sastri, Venkatagiri 1895. (2) by T. Ganapati Sastri in the Trivandrum Sansk. Series, 1916.

(3)

BHĀNUDATTA

Bhānudatta² is notable for his two popular works on the subject of Nāyaka-nāyikā and the Rasas, called the Rasa-

- It is a small work of 289 verses. See India Office Cat. vol. 11 (Keith and Thomas), no. 5248, p. 346.
 - 2 The form Bhānukara of this name is given by Seşa Cintāmaņi's

mañjarī and the Rasa-taraṅgiṇī. In the latter work, the author excuses himself¹ from giving further details about a certain point because, he says, they are already given in his Rasa-mañjarī which was, therefore, the earlier composition. Besides some verses from Bharata and Rudra's Śrṅgāra-tilaka and a verse from the Dhvanyūloka², Bhānudatta cites a work called the Rasa-ratna-dīpikā³, which may or may not be the same work as quoted by Ratnakaṇṭha in his commentary on Mammaṭa⁴. In the Rasa-taraṅgiṇī, Bhānudatta refers to Pūrvācāryāḥ, Pūrva-granthakāra-saṃmati and Prācīna saṃmati. These citations, however, give us no clue to his exact date.

A lyrical poem, called the Gīta-gaurīśa or Gīta-gaurīpati in ten cantos, published in the Granthamālā 1887-88, also professes to have been composed by Bhānudatta, who is probably identical with our author. As indicated by their respective writings, both the authors are Śaivas, and both possess poetical pretensions. Our Bhānudatta gives the name of his father as Gaņesvara⁶, Gaṇapatinātha⁷ or *Parimala, Gopāla's *Vikāsa and Rangaśāyin's Āmoda commentaries The title miśra is also appended sometimes to the name.

- 1 bahavo bhedās ca rasa-mañjaryām visesato darsītāh, iha punar vistara-bhiyā na pradarsvanta iti, ed. Granthamālā, p. 35, ed. Regnaud p. 57, 1. 32.
- 2 The verse anaucitvād rte in Dhva p. 145 is cited with the remark tatra prācīna-granthakṛtaḥ, implying that Bhānu was much younger than Ānandavardhana, in whose Vṛtti the verse occurs.
- 3 In Rasa-tarang^o ed. Granthamālā ad 1. 31, ed. Regnaud, p 44 1. 32.
- 4 Peterson ii, 17. An incomplete MS of a work called by this name is entered in Bhandarkar, *Rep.* 1884-87, no. 533 where the name of the author is given as Allaraja, which occurs as Mallaraja in Buhlei *Rep* 1874-75, no. 19, p. 16. See ch. on Minor Writers below under Allaraja
- 5 Aufrecht apparently distinguished the two authors at first by separate entries under their name (i. 405), but later on (i. 793) he states that the author of the lyric "is most likely identical with the writer of the Rasa-taranginī." (MS described in IOC vii, pp. 1443-45).
 - 6 Rasa mañj°. 168.
 - 7 Rasa-tarang° ed. Regnaud p. 66, col.; also Weber 824.

Gaṇanātha¹, while the author of the poem describes himself as the son of Gaṇapati or Gaṇanātha². There are also a few verses in the two works of our Bhānudatta which occur in the poem. Thus the maṅgala-verse of the Rasa-mañjarī (atmīyaṃ caraṇam)=Gīta-gauriśa ii, p 90; akaroḥ kimu natra' in Rasa-mañjarī 51.=Gīta-gauriśa ii, p. 14; prāṇeśusya prabhavati in Rasa-taraṅgiṇā iv, p. 40 ed. Graninamālā = Gīta gauriśa ii, p. 77. As the Gīta-gauriśa is not a mere compilation in which we may expect verses from other writers, the presence of verses in it from the two works of Bhānudatta can be reasonably explained by a presumption of common authorship of the three works.

The Gita-gaurisa appears to have been modelled on Jayadeva's Gita-govinda which, like Kālidāsa's Megha-dūta, gave birth to numerous imitations in later times. Even a cursory examination of these two works will show the close connexion between them; and it is remarkable that not only the general scheme, but even the verses in some chapters of Bhanudatta's poem correspond in metre with those of Jayadeva's. Thus:

layadeva

pralaya-payodhi jale dhrtavān asi vedam vihita-vahitra-caritram akhedam kesava dhrta mīna-sarīra, jaya jagadīša hare and Bhānudatta

bhramsı jagatı sakale pratilavarı aviseşam

- 1 In MSS of Rasa-tarang' noticed in ALcip 835. Weber 1726.
- 2 kavi-gananātha-vatasya kaver iti vacanam tri-jagati dhanyam, 11, p. 50, kija-hara-vinayo ganapati-tanavo nigadati hita-kāranam 11, p. 58.
- de g. the Gita-gangādhara by Kālyana, the Gita-girīsa by Rāma, the Gita-digambara by Vamsamaņi (HPS 1, 18), the Gita-rākhava by Prabhākara, son of Bhudhara, dated Samvat 1674 (Bhandatka: Rep 1882-83 p. 9). A Gita-raghava by Harisamkara is mentioned in HPS 11, no. 53. See also Rāma-pita-govinda (IOC vii, p. 1480) characterised by Eggeling as "a weak imitation of Jayadeva's Gita-govinda" but attributed to Jayadeva. Eggeling quotes from Garcin de Tassy about such passing off of imitations of Gita-govinda for that of Jayadeva. Cf. Pischel Die Hofdichter der Lakşmaņasena p. 23-

śamayitum iva jana-khedam aśeşam puruhara kṛta-māruta-veśa, jaya bhuvanādhipate. Again, Jayadeva

nıbhrta-nık<mark>uñja-grha</mark>m gatayā nısı rahası nılīya vasantam

cakita-vilokita-sakala-dıśā ratı-rabhasa-rasena

hasantam

sakhi he kesi-mathanam udāram ramaya mayā saha madana-manoratha-bhavitayā sayikāram

and Bhānudatta

abhınava-yauvana-bhüşıtayā dara-taralitu-lecanatāram

kiṃcid-udañcīta-vihasītayā calad-avīrala-pulūkavikāram

sakhi he samkaram udita-vilāsam saha samgamaya mayā natuyā rati-kautuka-darsitahāsam.

These two extracts, taken at random, will show how close the imitation is. We may presume reasonably from this that Bhānudatta's work was written some time after Jayadeva's lyric had achieved sufficient literary reputation to be thus imitated. Whether we place Jayadeva in the first or second half of the 12th century, Bhānudatta cannot be put earlier than that century, and this conclusion gives us one terminus to his date.

The other terminus is furnished by the date of one of the commentaries on the Rasa-mañjarī, called the Rasamañjarī-vikāsa (or -vilāsa) by Gopāla (alias Vopadeva), son of Nisimha, which is expressly dated in 1572 A. D. In the Sārngadhara-paddhati, which was

¹ Stein, Jaminia Cat. p 63, corrected at p 421, also p 273. As to the date of this commentary and the era used, see below Bibliography.—Kumārasvāmin, at the beginning of the 15th century, quotes (p. 280° the authority of a work called Rasa-mañjari to show that virc!

compiled about 1363 A.D., several verses are cited under the names of Bhānu-paṇḍita and Vaidya Bhānu-paṇḍita (790, 973, 1032, 1271, 3328, 3685), none of which, however, can be traced in the known works of our author. Jahlaṇa, whose anthology (ed. GOS, Baroda 1938) was compiled about the middle of the 13th century, also quotes and ascribes to Bhānu-paṇḍita and Vaidya Bhānu-paṇḍita as many as 36 verses, which are similarly untraceable, but three of which are found under the same citation in the Paddhati (790=p 68, 973=p. 107, and 3328=p. 183). It may, however, be presumed that the author of the Rasa-mañjarī was not anknown at this period, and that in the anthologies the epithets vaidya and paṇḍita were annexed to an earlier or later Bhānu in order to distinguish him from our author, whose namesake he was¹.

A closer approximation of Bhānudatta's date is possible if any inference is permissible from the mention of Nijāmadharaṇīpāla in the Rasa-mañjarī It is suggested that the Nizam referred to as ruler of Davagiri by Ananta Paṇḍita's commentary is Ahmad Nizam Shah, who obtained possession of Daulatabad (Devagiri) sometime between 1499 and 1507 A D. and founded the Nizam Shahi dynasty of Dekkan. P. V. Kane brings in fresh evidence by pointing out (HSP., p. 296-

reference is to Bhanudatta for the dictum cannot be traced in his Rasa-manjari.

In the Sabhyālamkaraņa of Govindaji (Bhandarkar Rep. 1887-91, p. laiii) we have selections from the poems of Bhānukara and Bhānupaṇḍita, by which obviously a distinction, is meant between the two poets—Har Datta Sarma (ABORI, xvii, 1936, pp. 243-58), relying chiefly on the ascription of a large number of Bhānudatta's verses to poet Bhānukara by some late anthologies, suggests their identity, which is very doubtful. See on this question G. V. Devasthali in N.A., ..., 1944, pp. 111-17; P. K. Gode in Ind. Culture iii. pp. 751-56 and S. K. De, Some Problems, p. 147.

² S. K. De in Some Problems, p. 144-45. But Ramnath Jha (Journal of Patna Univ. 111. no. 1-2) thinks that the Nizam is the second ruler of the dynasty, and Kṛṣṇa (so interpreted also by Ananta Paṇḍita) is Kṛṣṇa Deva Rāya of Vijayanagar (1509-1530).

97) that Bhanudatta married a sister of the Smrti-writer Misaru Miśra, author of Vivādacandra, who flourished in the middle of the 15th century. It would not be unreasonable, therefore, to assign Bhānudatta to a period between 1450 and 1500 A.D.

In the last verse of the Rusa-mañjarī, Bhānudatta's native country is given as Videha (videhabhūh)' or Mithila, which agrees with Burnell's description of Bhanudatta as a native of Mithila. As a Maithili writer, it is not surpising that he was acquainted with the Gaudiya Jayadeva's well-known lyric, and tried to emulate it with a similar work on Siva and Gauri. In another work called Kumāra-bhārgavīva² attributed to Bhānudatta, the author is called the son of Ganapati or Gananatha (obviously the same as our author), and his pedigree is given thus: Ratneśvara -> Suresvara (author of a Śāriraka-bhāşyavārttika)-> Viśvanātha-> Ravinātha-> Bhavanātha-> Mahādeva-> Ganapati-> Bhanudatta. Ganapati appears to have been a poet whose verses are quoted by Bhanudatta himself in his Rusa-tarangini. A poet Ganapati is praised, in a verse ascribed to one Rajasekhara in Jahlano's anthology (p. 45), as the author of a work called Muhamodu. An Alamkaratilaka in five chapters and a Śrngūra-dīpikā are also attributed to our Bhanudatta.

The Spingura-dīpikā is not available, but the Alamkāratilaka has been published³. It is written in mixed prose and verse and cover the usual topics of Sanskrit Poetics. The first Pariccheda speaks of Kāvya, of which Rasa is declared

¹ In Madras ed of 1872, as well as in the MSS noticed by Aufrecht (Bod. Cat. 213b) and Bhandarkar (Rep. 1883-84 p. 12), the reading vidarbhabbūh is a mislection; for the author represents the river Ganges as flowing through his country, which is true of Videha and not of Vidarbha Cf. Weber ii no. 1726. The title misra, often appended to Bhānudatta's name, would indicate that he was a Maithili Brahman, and that he was probably not a Vaidya.

² The work is in 12 Ucchvāsas in mixed prose and verse. See IOC vii p. 1540, where the genealogical verses are quoted in full.

³ By (1 V. Devasth ili in JBRAS (New Scries), xxiii-xxv (1947-49).

to be the soul, and deals with its three varieties, Uttama, Madhyama and Adhama. It then goes on to six Rītis and four Vṛttis (Kaiśikī etc.) The second and third Paricchedas are devoted respectively to Doşa and Guṇa, in the treatment of which the work closely follows Bhoja. The fourth and fifth Paricchedas deal with Alaṃkāras of Śabda and Artha respectively, enumerated as 77. A work of the author's called Citra-candrikā is cited.

The Rasa mañjarī is a much smaller work which deals generally, with illustrations, the topics of Nāyaka-Nāyikā, their adjuncts and excellences, the two varieties of Śṛṅgāra, and ten stages of Vipralambha-Śṛṇgāra. The Rasa taraṅguṇī, divided into eight Taraṅgas, deals more elaborately with Rasas, with a detailed treatment of Śṛṅgāra. The chapterarrangement of topics is as follows: (1) Sthāyi-bhāva (ii) Vibhava (iii) Anubhava (iv) Sāttvika-bhāva (v) Vyabhicāri-bhāva (vi) Śṛṅgāra Rasa (vii) Other Rasas (viii) Three kinds of Dṛṣṭi in relation to Sthāyi-bhāva, etc.

The commentaries on the two works of Bhānudatta, as detailed below, are numerous. Of these, the Naukā on Rasatarangini by Gangārāma Jadi, and the Vyangyārtha-kaumudā and "Prakāśa on Rasa-manjarī by Ananta-pandita and Nāgojī Bhatta respectively have been published.

Bhānudatta also appears to have compiled an anthology called Rasa-pārijāta (printed by Matilal Banarsidas, Lahore 1939).

BIBLIOGRAPHY Rasa-mañjarì

Editions. (1) In Kāvya saṃgraha of Jivānanda Vidyasagar, 2nd. ed. Calcutta 1886. (2) ed. Rama Sastri Tailanga, with Vyaṅgyārtha-kaumudī of Ananta Paṇḍita and Prakāśa of Nāgojī Bhaṭṭa, Benares Skt. Series. 1904. (3) ed. Venkata ama Sastri in Telugu characters, Madras 1909. (4) In Grantha-rutna-mālā vol. 1. Our references are to the Benares ed.

Commentaries. (1) Vyangyārtha-kaumudī by Ananta Paņdita, son of Tryambaka Paņdita (Timaji) and grandson of

Bālo Paṇḍita, and great-grandson of Nīlakaṇtha Paṇṇta. His native place was Puṇyastambha (Puntambem in Ahmednagar) on the Godāvarī. The comm. was written at Benares in Saṃvat 1692=1636 A. D. at the request of Candrabhānu, son of Vīrasenadeva and grandson of Madhukara. The date of composition is specified in the concluding verse which is given in the India Office MS (Eggeling. IOC iii, p. 356), but omitted in the printed text. Ed. as above. Ananta also wrote a Mudrārākṣasa-pūrvapīṭhikā (Mitra 1654), and a commentary on Govar-dhana-saptaśatī in 1645 A.D. (ed. N.S.P. Bombay, 1886).

- (2) °Prakāśa by Nāgojī or Nāgeša Bhaṭṭa, for whom see under Jagannātha. Ed as above. IOC, iii, no. 1222′ 2602; BORI Cat. xii, nos. 223-25, p. 258f.
- (3) "Parimala by Śeṣa Cintāmaṇi, son of Śeṣa Nṛsiṃha and younger brother of Śeṣa Kṛṣṇa. Extract in Mitra 3115, vol. ix p. 194, and Bhandarkar, Rep. 1883-84, p. 365. The MS in Mitra appears to have been copied in Saṃvat 1609 (=1552-53 A D); but the MS in Bhandarkar bears no date. There are six MSS of this comm. in BORI Cat. xii, nos 217-222; see also IOC iii, nos. 1226-27, p. 357. Cintāmaṇi also wrote several other works including one on Prosody called Chandaḥ-prakāśa (Aufrecht 189a).
- Vopadeva of Kaundinya-gotra, son of Nṛsimha and grandson of Gopāla of Jabala-grāma in the Mahārāṣṭra country, and pupil of Menganātha. He calls his author Bhānukara. The comm. is dated in Saṃvat 1484=1428 A. D. See Jamnu Cat. no. 1221 (extract). Sridhara Bhandarkar however, points out (Rep. of Second Tour 1904-06, p. 36) that the date is 1494 and not 1484 as given by Stein (extr. p. 273). but he thinks that it is Saka era, in which case the date of the commentary will be 1572 A. D. See P. K. Gode in ABORI, xvi (1934-35) pp. 145-47.
 - (5) Rasika-rañjanī by Gopāla Bhatta, son of Harivamśa

- There is also a commentator of the same name on Mammata. They may all be identical. See above pp. 95, 161. MSS: Aufrecht i. 495b, ii. 116a, iii. 106a; BORI MSS Cat. xii, nos. 226-30 (extracts). The commentary by Harivamáa Bhatta in Oudh Cat. xi. 1C is probably a mistake for this comm. of his son, For Gopāla's other works see Aufrecht i. 161.
- (6) Samañjasā or Vyangyārtha-kaumudī by Visvesvara, son of Laksmīdhara, for whom see the chapter on Minor Writers below. MSS: Aufrecht i. 495b, ii. 116a, iii. 106a.
- (7) °Amoda by Rangasayin alias Gurujalasayin Gurujāla Rangaśāyın, who is said to have studied under Mahādesika of Vādhūla-gotra and under his own paternal uncle Anantācārya. He is described as son of Dharmācārya of Cilukamari family. He was a Śrīvaiṣṇava. V. Raghavan points out that Gurujāla is a village in Palnad Taluq in Guntur district: the author's real name Chilakamari is in the East was thus Rangasāvin. Godavari district; this epithet attached to the names of his father and grandfather shows that this must have been their original home. Rangasayin frequently criticises Parimala which, as noted above, cannot be later than 1553 A. D. He quotes also Kuvalayānanda of Appayya, as well as Praudha-manoramā of Bhattoji Dīksita, whose literary activity belongs to the last quarter of the 16th century. Rangasayin, therefore, may be assigned to the 1st half of the 17th century A.D. Besides the Amoda commentary he wrote a Srngara-lchari which he himself quotes. Madras Cat. xxii, 12941-42, (extracts).
- (8) Vyangyārtha-dīpikā by Ānanda Śarman, son of Tryambaka. Aufrecht i. 495a. ii, 116a.
- (9) Bhānu-bhāva-prakāsinī by Mahādeva. Tanjore Cat ix, no. 5284, p. 4070.
- (10) Rasika-rañjana by Vrajarāja Dīksita, son of Kāmarāja and father of Jīvarāja. Nor:h Western Pov. Cat.

1877-86, ii. 120. See below under Jīvarāja's comm. on Rasa-taraṅgiṇī. Burnell wrongly enters Rasika-rañjana as a commentary by "the author of the text." It appears from Madras Cat. xx, Kāvya, p. 8008 that Vrajarāja wrote an independent poem, entitled Rasika-rañjana, in three Stabakas, describing feminine attractions and charms. Are the two works identical?

(11) Rasamañjarī-sthūla-tātparyārtha. IOC in, 1230/543, p. 358.

Rasa-turangini

Editions. (1) with Naukā of Gangārāma Jadi, in Puthi form, Kashi Samskrita Press, Benares 1886 (2) in Grantha-ratna-mālā vol. 1. 1887-88 (3) ed. Regnaud in his Rhétorique Sanskrite, Paris 1884 (text in Roman transliteration).

- Commentaries. (1) "Naukā by Gangārāma Jadı or Jadin. Madras Cat. xxii 12930 (extract)-31. This commentary is dated in Samvat 1799=1742-43 A.D. (P. K. Gode in ABORI, xiii, p. 186). Gangārāma is also the author of an independent work called Rasa-mīmāmsa (ed. with the author's Chāyā, Kashı Samskrita Press, Benares 1885), in which he refers to his Naukā. He was son of Nārāyaṇa and pupil of Nīlakaṇṭha, and also wrote two works on logic, one of which is Tarkāmṛta-caṣaka; in it he gives the names of his father and preceptor (see Aufrecht 1. 140). This is a comm. on the Tarkāmṛta of Jagadīśa. On Gangārāma Jadı see G. V. Devasthali in Journal of Univ. Bombay, xi. pt. 2, 1942, pp. 84-88.
 - (2) Rasika-rañjanī by Veņidatta Tarkavāgīśa Bhaṭṭācārya, son of Vīreśvara and grandson of Lakṣmaṇa. From a corrupt verse giving the date Eggeling (IOC, no. 1216) surmises that the commentary was dated is 1553 A.D.; but G. V. Devasthali (IA v. 1942, p. 195f) shows that this early date cannot be accepted. In his opinion the work belongs to the beginning of the 18th century, about 1708 A.D. The author belonged to the Ahicchatra-dhara Kula,

- and his genealogy is thus given: Mahīdhara (a Māntrika of Kāśīpati and author of mantra-mahodadhi)—Kalyāṇa—Lakṣmaṇa—Vīreśvara—Veṇīdatta. Veṇīdatta also wrote an independent work on Poetics called Alaṃkāra-candro-daya. See under Minor Writers below. MSS: Aufrecht i. 494b, ii. 115b, 220a, iii. 106a; 10C iii no 1216/17()3a p. 354 (extract); Madras Cat. xxii, no. 12932.
- (3) "Setu or "Setu-bandha by Jivaraja, son of Vrajaraja Diksita (see bibliography above under Rasa-mañjari). MSS: Aufrecht i. 494b, ii. 220a, iii. 10ba. The Rasa-setu in Aufrecht i. 494b is probably the same commentary. He was the great-grandson of Samaraja Diksita (q v. under Minor Writers), who lived in the latter part of the 17th century. He speaks of Gangaránia's comm. Naukā with contempt tintrod, verse 9). Extract in Ulwar Cat. no. 226.
- (4) Rasodadhi by Ganesa, MS dated 1698 A D. Buhler, Cat. Gujarat, Kathiawad etc. 54
- (5) Rasodadhi by Mahadeva, Kielhorn, Central Prov. Cat. 104.
- (6) Sāhātya-sudhā or Kāvya-sudha by Nemisaha, son of Bhīmasāha, described as mahārājādhīrāja. Aufrecht 1. 494b, in 106a, See Cat. BORI MS xii, pp. 234-35. P K. Gode (Cal. Orient. Journal. 1, pp. 217-20) would identify the author with Nemi Shah II of Jawhar line of chiefs in Bombay Presidency—about 1650 A D.
 - 17) Nūtana tarī by Bhagavadbhatta Aufrecht 1, 494b.
- (8) Comm. by Ayodhyāprasāda Aufrecht 1, 494b. The author also commented on the Vrtta-ratnākara
- (9) Comm. by Dinakara. Aufrecht is 115b. Possibly this is the comm. ascribed to Nemisaha, mentioned above, who was Dinakara's patron, as the nominal author

Alamkāra-tilaka

Ed G. V. Devasthali in *JBRAS*, New Sches, xxin pp. 57-82, xxiv-xxv pp. 92-120 (1947-49) The name of the author is given as Bhänukara in Burnell 54a and Bhau Daji Catalogue. The work is in five paricchedas (Peterson vi, App. p. 29)

Śṛṅgāra-dīpikā

Aufrecht i. 661a $(=Oudh\ Cat.\ in\ 12)$.

(4)

Following upon these, we have innumerable works of a similar nature which take Rasa, especially Śṛṅgāra, as its orincipal theme, and which were composed apparently with the purpose of guiding the poet with rules and illustrations in the composition of erotic pieces so popular and profuse in Sanskrit literature. The most important of these works and their authors will be mentioned in the chapter on Minor Writers below.

Some Vaisnava authors, like Rūpa Gosvāmin, however, attempt to bring Vaisnava ideas to bear upon the general theme of poetic or dramatic Rasa. We shall, for convenience of treatment, take them in a group here.

RŪPA AND JĪVA GOSVĀMIN

Rūpa Gosvāmin, son of Kumāra and grandson of Mukunda, is the author of numerous Vaiṣṇava works, including the Bhakti-rasāmṛta-sindhu and Ujjvala-nīlamaṇi, which give an analysis and exposition of Bhakti-rasa on the analogy of the orthodox Rasa, especially the Ṣṛṇgāra or Erotic. He is well known as a contemporary of Caitanya, the Vaiṣṇava reformer of Bengal, and must have, therefore, flourished towards the end of the 15th and the first half of the 16th century. This date is confirmed by the dates which some of his works bear. His Dāna-keli-kaumudī and Vidagdha-mādhava were composed respectively in 1495 and 1533 A.D.¹; while his Lalita-mādhava, Bhakti-rasāmṛta and Utkalikā-vallarī are dated respectively in 1537, 1541 and 1550 A.D. The most flourishing period of Rūpa's literary activity thus falls between 1533 and 1550 A.D., but it must have begun as early as 1495 A.D.

¹ For information about these authors see S. K. De, Vaişṇava Faith and Movement in Bengal, Calcutta 1942.

The commentary Lacana-rocani on Ujjvala-nilamani was composed by his nephew Jiva Gosvāmin, son of his younger brother Vallabha (alias Anupama). His Mūdhava-mahotsava was composed in 1555 A.D. and his Gopāla-campū bears the dates 1589 and 1592 A.D.

Rūpa Gosvāmin also appears to have written a treatise on Dramaturgy called Nātaka-candrikā, which is quoted in the commentary on the Vidagdha-mādhava and in the Vaisnavatosini on the Bhūgavata. At the commencement of this work, Rūpa Gosvāmin states that in composing it he consulted the Bharata-śāstra and Rasa-sudhākara (Rasārnava-sudhākara of Śinga-bhūpāla), and generally (1. 2) the treatment of the Sahitya-darpana asbeing opposed to Bharata's views. The topics dealt with in eight sections are: (1) general characteristics of a drama, (2) the hero (nāyaka), (3) the divisions of a Rūpaka (nāndī etc), (4) elements in the action (samdhi, patākā etc) and their classification, (5) arthopaksepaka and its divisions (viskambhaka etc), (6) division of acts and scenes, (7) distribution of dialects (bhāṣā-vidhāna), (8) styles of dramatic composition (vrtti) and their employment according to the Rasa intended. The work is not a small one, and the illustrations taken mostly from Vaisnava works are fairly minute and numerous. In his Ujjvala-nīlamani Rūpa gives illustrative verses from most of his own poetical and dramatic productions, such as Uddhava-dūta, Vidagdha-mādhava, Dānakeli-kaumudī and other works². A Rasāmṛta-śeşa is also attributed to Rūpa.

¹ On the question of date sec S K. De, *Padyūvalī* (ed Dacca Univ. 1934) pp. li-liii. A list of Rūpa's works will be found on pp. xlix-1.

² For a list of his works see also S K. De, Vaisnava I with and Movement pp. 113-118; also analysis of Bhakti-rasāmṛta and Ujivala-nīlamani at pp. 126-167 This work may also be consulted for the novel application of the orthodox Rasa-theory to the dectrine of Bhakti and for an exposition of the erotic mysticism in these Vaisṇava works, which expresses religious longings in the language and imagery of earthly passion. The question is, therefore, not discussed here.

VISVANĀTHA CAKRAVARTIN

Visvanātha Cakravartin, who wrote the commentary, called Änanda-candrikā or Ujjvala-nilamaņī-kiraņa, lived at the end of the 17th and beginning of the 18th century; for he composed a commentary called Sārārtha-darśinī on the Bhāgavata in šaka 1626=1704 A.D., while his Ānanda-candrikā is also dated in šaka 1618=1696 A.D. He also wrote, besides several Vaiṣṇava works, a commentary on the Alaṃkāra-kaustubha of Kavikarṇapūia, mentioned below. He mentions a work called Rasa-taraṅginī by Nārayāṇa Bhaṭṭa in his commentary on Ujjvala-nīlamaṇi (ed. NSP. p. 25).

KAVIKAR VAPURA

Paramananda-dasa Sena Kavikarnapūra described as the youngest son of Sivananda Sena and pupil of Srīnātha, wrote a work called Alamkara-kaustubha. The author was a well-known Vaiṣṇava of Bengal belonging to the Vaidya family, and wrote several Sanskrit Vaiṣṇava works, including a metrical life of Caitanya (Caitanya-caritamita ed. Radharaman Press, Murshidabad 1884) and a drama on the same theme (Caitanya-candrodaya, ed. Bibl. Ind. 1854). His drama Caitanya-candrodaya was composed in Saka 1494 or 1501=1572 or 1579 A.D.¹, and his Gaitanya-ganoddeśa-dīpikā was composed in 1576 A.D.² His father Sivānanda was an elder disciple of Caitanyadeva, who used to organise and lead the annual

- 1 The date is given in the verse: \(\lambda kc \caturda \lambda \lambda te \tau_i vaj_i yukte \) gauro harir aharam-mandala \(\bar{a} \text{virasit} / tasimin \) catur-navati-hhaji tadiya-līlā-\(\bar{a} \lambda \text{grantho'} \text{yam \(\bar{a} \text{virabhavat katamasya vaktr\(\bar{a} t\), which tells us that Gaurahari or Caitanya' was born in Saka 1407, and that the drama, which deals with him, was written in Saka 1494 or 1501=1572 or 1579 A.D. See discussion about the date in \(Vai\) sincorrect in stating that it was composed in 1543 A.D. (But see Sten Konow Ind Drama p. 93, section 104). For the author and his works see S. K. De, \(Pad\) yavalī (ed. Dacca Univ. 1934), pp. 188-90 and \(Vai\) snava \(Fai\) th and \(Movement\) pp. 32-34.
- 2 HPS 11 p. 50, as well as ALeip 721, reads sake vasu-graha mite which gives 1576 or 1577 AD. but IOC no. 2510 reads sake rasarasamite which would give 1540 A.D.

exodus of Caitanya's followers to Puri from Bengal. Mitra in the introduction to his edition of the drama (p. vi) says that Kavikarṇapūra was born in 1524 A.D. at Kāñcanapallī (Kāñcḍāpāḍā) in Nadiya a few years before Caitanya's death. The A!uṃkāra-kaustubha is composed in ten kiraṇas, as follow: 1 Kāvya-lakṣaṇa, 2 Śabdārtha, 3 Dhvani, 4 Guṇībhūta-vyaṅgya, 5 Rasa-bhāva-tadbheda, 6 Guṇa, 7 Śabdālaṃkāra, 8 Arthālaṃkāra, 9 Rīti, 10 Doṣa¹. It is thus a more comprehensive work than Rūpa Gosvāmin's and the Vaiṣṇavite proclivities are not so prominent; but most of the illustrative verses are in praise of Kṛṣṇa and the subject-matter follows the Kāvya-prakāśa in treatment. The commentaries on this work are noticed below.

KAVICANDRA

Kavicandra describes himself² as a physician and as son of Kavikarnapūra and Kausalyā, grandson of Vidyāvisārada, and father of Kavibhüşana and Kavıvallabha belonging to the Datta family of Dirghānka-grāma. He wrote a Cikitsāratnāvali in Saka 1583 (=1661 A.D.) where the same history is given, The date precludes his identification with the poet of the same name quoted in the anthology called Pady avali. He wrote, among other works, a Kāvya-candrikā in 15 prakāsas dealing with (1) kāvya-laksana, (2) śabda-sakti, (3) rasa, (4) bhāva, (5) rasa-bheda, (6) rasābhāsa, (7) kāvya-bheda, (8) pramāņa-

- 1 For a detailed résumé of its contents see Mitra 1662.
- 2 *IOC*. iii, pp. 344-45; *ABod* pp. 211-12.
- 3 IOC, v, pp. 958-59. Aufrecht (11. 166) mentions the date with a query, but the date appears to be correct.
- 4 See ed. S. K. De, Dacca Univ. 1934, nos. 162, 166, 188. 189, 190-191. See also IOC vii, p. 1534, at p. 1535. The verses quoted from Kavicandra's work in ABod 212a gives the same account of the author, and the colophon says: iti dīrghānka-grāma-nivāsi-datiakulodbhava-vaidya-śrī-kavicandra-viracitāyām etc. It is, therefore, not possible that Paramānanda Sena Kavikarņapūra, author of the Caitanya-candrodaya, is identical with Kavikarņapūra, father of Kavicandra.

nırūpaṇa, (9) rīti, (10) guṇa, (11) śabdālaṃkāra, (12) arthā-laṃkāra, (13) doṣa, (14) kavitopāya, and (15) nāṭya¹. He quotes, besides older authors, the Kavi-kalpalatā, Sāhitya-darpaṇa, Rāmacandra-campū, Ratnāvalī-kāvya, Sānti-candrikā, Stavāvalī and an author called Puruṣottama, as well as two of his own works called Sāra-laharī and Dhātu-candrikā. His date would be latter half of the 17th century.

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Editions. (1) with Locana-rocani of Jīva Gosvāmin, Murshidabad 1889, 1917 in Bengali characters (2) with the same and with the comm. Ananda-candrikā of Viśvanātha Cakravartin, ed. Kedarnath and V. L. Panshikar, Nir. Sag. Press, Bombay 1913 (our references are to this edition).

Commentaries. (1) Locana-rocanī by Jīva Gosvāmin, the name often confused with that of Sanātana Gosvāmin in the Catalogues. Published with the text, as noted above. (2) Ānanda-candrikā (also "Kiraṇa which is a summary) by Viśvanātha Cakravartın. Aufrecht i. 62a. Published in NSP ed. of the text, as noted above. The comm. "Kiraṇa-leśa in Mıtra 580 (also in SCC vii. 5; Kathvate Rep. 1891-95, 318) is probably this commentary. (3) Āgama-candrikā and Ātma-prabodhikā. Aufrecht i. 62a. (4) An anonymous "Tīkā in SCC vii. 3.

Nāţaka-candrikā

Edition. Rasavihari Samkhyatirtha, with a Bengali trans. (in Bengali characters), Kashimbazar 1907. MSS: Aufrecht i. 284b, ii. 61b, 207b. Extract in *Ulwar Cat.* 1061 and Mitra 3160; Madras Cat. xxii. 12900.

Rasāmrta-śeşa

Aufrecht in 220b. Also called Bhakti-rasāmṛta-śeṣa. Ed.

1 Aufrecht's Bodieian MS contains eight prakāšas named after the first eight topics given nere; but our enumeration follows the India Office MS. Cf. Regnaud p. 377.

Haridas Das, Haribole Kutir, Navadvipa 1941 in Bengali characters.

Alamkāra-kaustubha

Editions. With the commentary of Visvanātha Cakravartin, Murshidabad 1899, in Bengali characters. Also ed. Sivaprasad Bhattacharya, with an anonymous comm. and a gloss, Varendra Research Society, Rajshahi, vol. 1 (ch. i-v), 1923 in Devanāgarī characters.

Commentaries. (1) Sāra-bodhinī by Viévanātha Cakravartin. Aufrecht iii. 7b. Published with the text, as noted above. (2) Tippaṇī by Sārvabhauma, pupil of Cakravartin, Dacca Univ. MS nos. 2363, 2394, 3471. (3) Dīdhiti prakāśikā by Vṛndāvanacandra Tarkālaṃkāra Cakravartin, son of Rādhācaraṇa Kavīndra Cakravartin. IOC iii, 1195/240, p. 344. (4) Tīkā by Lokanātha Cakravartin. Aufrecht i. 31b. This is printed anonymously in the Varendra Research Soc. ed. mentioned above as an 'old commentary'.

Kāvya-candrikā

MSS: Aufrecht i. 101a; KBod 499. The Bodleian MS appears to contain 16 Prakāśas.

WRITERS ON KAVI-SIKŞĀ ARISIMHA, AMARACANDRA AND DEVESVARA

(1)

The Svetāmbara Jainas, Arisimha and Amaracandra, are notable in Sanskrit Poetics for a work on the composition of verses called the Kavitā-rahasya or Kāvya-kalpalatā and its commentary entitled Kavišiksā-vṛtti. This work was composed in part by Arisimha and completed by Amaracandra¹

¹ kimcic ca tad-racitam ātmakrtam ca kimcit/vyākhyāsyate tvaritakāvya-krte'tra sūtram, says the Vrtti.

who also wrote the commentary. Arisimha, described as son of Lavanyasimha or Lavanasimha, wrote also a poem called Sukrta-samkīrtana (ed. Bhavnagar 1917) in honour of his patron Vastupāla (d. 1242 A.D.), the Jaina minister of the Dholkā Rānā Vīradhavala; and he also lived in the time of Vīradhavala's son Vīsaladeva² (1243-66 A.D.). Amaracandra appears to be a more prolific writer, being also the author of the Jinendra-carita (otherwise called Padmānanda-kāvya)3, the Bāla-bhārata and a grammatical work called Syādisabdasamuccaya (Aufrecht i. 180). Rājašekhara Sūri, the Jaina author of the Prabandha-kośa (p. 61, ed. Singhi Jaina Granthamālā), also attributes a Sūktāvali and a Kalā-kalāpa. In the Vrtti to the Kāvya-kalpalatā itself, three other works by Amaracandra are cited, viz. the Chandoratnāvalī, a work on Prosody (p. 6), Kāvya-kalpalatā-parimala (pp. 19, 63), probably an epitome or continuation of the work of that name, and an independent work on Poetics called Alamkāraprabodha (p. 117).

Amaracandra was a pupil of Jinadatta Sūri⁷ of the Vāyaḍa-gaccha, who is identified with the author of the Viveka-vilāsa and who lived about the first half of the 13th century. Amaracandra appears to have been a pupil or a

- 1 The colophon calls the Vrtti kavi-siksā-vrtti. Bühler thinks, from i. 1 and 2, that the original Kārikā-verses of Arisimha were called Kavitā-rahasya, while Amaracandra's Vrtti was entitled Kāvya-kalpalatā.
- 2 See the question discussed in detail in Bühler, Das Sukrtasamkīrtana des Arisimha, Wien 1889, pp. 5f, 38; also IA, vi 210-12. Amaracandra is said to have added a postscript or Sargānta-śloka to the Sukrta-samkīrtana. It is a Kāvya in 11 cantos (ed. Jaina Ātmananda Sabhā, Bhavnagar 1917). See IA, xxxi, pp. 477-95.
 - 3 Ed. H. R. Kapadia, GOS, Baroda 1932.
- 4 Ed. in Kāvyamālā 45, Nir. Sag Press, Bombay 1894; also ed. in the *Pandit* iv-vi, (1869-72).
 - 5 Ed. Chandraprabha Press, Benares 1915.
 - 6 Cf. IOC 848, which has a reference to Kāvya-kalpalatā-mañjarī.
- 7 See the concluding verse of the Bāla-bhārata and the colophon to the Kāvya-kalpalatā.
 - 8 See Peterson i. p. 58-59; but Peterson's conjecture about Jinadatta

fellow-student of Arisimha¹ and lived, according to the account given in Jaina Rājaśekhara's work², in time of Vīradhavala and his minister Vastupāla, as well as in that of Vīsaladeva, before the latter's accession to the throne of Anhilvād, i.e. about the second quarter or the middle of the 13th century.

The Kāvya-kalpalatā consists of four Pratānas, namely, I. Chandaḥ-siddhi, II. Śabda-siddhi, III. Śleşa-siddhi, and IV. Artha-siddhi. For a full account see Aufrecht, Bodleian Cat. no. 497 and IOC iii, no 1183/848, pp. 340-41.

(2)

The date of Devesvara, author of the Kavi-kalpalatā, can be approximately settled from the internal evidence supplied by the work itself; for it closely follows, in its treatment of the subject and general arrangement, Arisimha and Amaracandra's work; and it is not difficult to show that he also copies wholesale from the text of his predecessors. He borrows literally most of the rules and definitions, and even repeats the illustrative stanzas. Thus, Devesvara pp. 157-60 (veṇyāḥ sarpāsi°) and pp. 36-7 (ratnādi yatra) = Arisimha pp. 135-37 and pp. 30-1; the definition of adbhuta-vidhi in Arisimha p. 93=Devesvara p. 130. This copying is not sporadic but systematic, and is found practically throughout the work, so that it is highly probable that Devesvara had the text of the Kāvya-katpalatā before him, when he composed

is not right; see also Merutunga's *Prabandha-cintāmaņi*, p. 258; Peterson iv, pp. viii, xxxvi and App. 115; Bhandarkar *Rep.* 1883-84, pp. 6, 156; Bühler op. cit. pp. 25, 48. Jinadatta Sūri's *Viveka-vilāsa* is dated 1220 A.D.

- 1 Rājašekhara Sūri says that Amara was a pupil of Arisimha. Cf Sridhar Bhandarkar, Rep 1904-6. pp. 23-24; Bühler op. cit. pp. 5-6. contra Bhandarkar.—One of the sketches of Rājašekhara's Prabandhakoša deals with Amaracandra.
- 2 His work is dated in 1348 A.D. See introd. to Amara's Bāla-bhārata, ed. Kāvyamālā. Rājašekhara Sūri was a pupil of Tilaka Sūri of Koţika Gaņa (Peterson iv, p. cv).

his own work on the same subject. This gives us one terminus to his date at the middle of the 13th century.

The other terminus is given by the fact that a verse of Devesvara's (nāga-visese sese p. 155) is quoted under his name in the Paddhati of Sārngadhara (545, devesvarasya). As this anthology was compiled about 1363 A.D., we get the middle of the 14th century as the other terminus. Allowing half a century to elapse between Devesvara and Arisimha, on the one hand, and a similar period of time between Devesvara and the compiler of the Paddhati, on the other, we may roughly fix the beginning of the 14th century as his approximate date.

Devesvara describes himself as son of Vāgbhaṭa, who was a mahāmāṭya to some prince of Mālava (?); and in one of the samasyā-ślokas, there is a panegyric of Hammīra-mahīmahendra, who is apparently the Cauhan prince of that name who reigned about 1283-1301 A.D.¹

(3)

Two other Kavi-śikṣā works by Jaina authors are known, namely, by Ācārya Vinayacandra (about 1250 A.D.) and by Jaymangala who wrote in the times of Jayasimha Siddharāja (1094-1143 A. D). A large part of Rājaśekhara's Kāvyamīmāmsā is concerned with similar topics. There is another work on Kavi-śikṣa by Gangādāsa, the well-known author of Chandomanjarī lt appears to be an elementary treatise on miscellaneous topics, such as Chandaḥ-kathana, Sāmānya-

1 See S. K. De in JRAS 1922, pp. 577f on the date of Devesvara. In the footnote there, omit the words "from the author's own comment on the word." Devesvara also refers to another work of his, called Candra-kalāpa (matkṛta-candrakalāpe'malu-matibhis tad budhair jācyam, ŚgŚ 11, p. 225; also in Bibl. Ind. ed.). The variant in the Calcutta edition (1900) reads (p. 42) instead matkṛta-kavikalpalatāparimalatas, while an alternative reading noticed in the Bibl. Indica ed. (p. 52) is matkṛta-kavi-kalpalatāyām amala-matibhiḥ.

śabda, Rasa, Guṇa. Śabdālaṃkāra, Kāvya-doṣa and Samasyāpūraṇa (see IHQ xxiv, p. 315-16). The Kavi-śikṣā of Jayamaṅgala and Kavi-kalpalatā of Rāghava-caitanya will be noticed below in the chapter on Minor Writers.

All these manuals are directed to the practical object of Kavi-sikṣā or instruction of poets in the composition of their works. They have little direct relation to Poetics proper.

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Kāvya-kalpalatā and its Vrtti Kavi-siksā

- Editions. (1) Rama Sastri, Benares 1886. (2) Vamana Sastri, Bombay 1891. (3) ed. Jagannath Sastri Hoshing, Chowkhamba Skt. Ser. Benares 1931 (our references are to this ed.).
- Commentary. "Makaranda by Subhavijaya Gaṇi, pupil of Hīravijaya Sūri of Tapā-gaccha who lived in the reign of 'Akabbar Śāhi'. Aufrecht i. 101a, iii. 22b; KBod 497. Our author lived in the reign of Salem or Jahangir (śrīmat-salem-śāhi-rājye) and wrote the commentary in Saṃvat 1665=1608-9 A.D. at the request of Vijayadeva Sūri (Peterson vi, p. 25f).

Kavi-kalpalatā

- Editions. (1) with Comm. by Vecārāma Sārvabhauma, in the Hindu Commentator, vols. 1-3, Benares 1867-70. (2) with Comm. by Ramgopal Kaviratna 1900 (our references are to this edition). (3) together with his own comm. by Saraccandra Sastri, Bibl. Indica, Calcutta 1913. (4) in Pratna-krama-nandinī, Benares nos. 1-31. The work is divided into four Stabakas.
- Commentaries. (1) Bāla-bodhikā by Sūrya Kavi, also known as Sūrya-dāsa or Sūrya Sūri. His genealogy is given thus: Rāma of Pārthapura (under Rāma, king of Devagiri)-> Viṣṇu-> Nīlkaṇṭha-> Nāganātha-> Nṛsiṃha-> Nāganātha-> Jñānarāja (author of Siddhānta-sundara)-> Sūrya (Weber i, p. 231). He was a versatile author (for his works see

Aufrecht i. 731b, ii. 175b). His Līlāvatī-fīkā was composed in 1542, while Sūrya-prakāśa on Bhāskara's Bīja-gaṇita is dated in 1539 A.D. He also wrote an artificial poem called Rāma-kṛṣṇa-viloma-kāvya (ed in Haeberlin's Kāvya-saṃgraha, and Kāvyamālā Gucchaka xi, p. 147f), which praises in alternate verses Rāma and Kṛṣṇa, and gives the same text to be read forward or backward respectively. He also wrote a Nṛṣiṃha-campū in five Ucchvāsas (IOC vii, p. 1548; see also ibid, p. 1478). He belonged to the Bharadvāja-gotra and lived in Pārtha-pura near the confluence of the Godāvarī and Vidarbhā. Aufrecht i. 87a; iii. 19a.

- (2) Comm. by Vecārāma. Probably the same work as printed in the Benares ed. Aufrecht ii. 16b; the name is given as Vecārāma Sārvabhauma in Jammu MS no. 3482 (Jammu Cat. p. 59). See under Minor Writers below.
 - (3) anonymous °Tīkā in SCC vii. 8.
- (4) Padārtha-dyotanikā by Mahādeva, son of Pattavardhana Mudgala. H. P. Sastri, Cat. ASB MSS, vi, MSS no. 4,99/10004, 4800/8999, pp. 393-94.

CHAPTER X

MINOR WRITERS ON ALAMKĀRA

(1)

We propose in this chapter to deal with the minor writers on Alamkara, other than the commentators as well as less known authors already mentioned in the preceding chapters, arranging them alphabetically, and giving the names of their works and such details as can be collected about them.

1. AKABARA ŚĀHA, alias Bade Śāheb Śringāra-mañjarī

(Ed. V. Raghavan, Hyderabad Arch. Dept. 1951)

The author is described as son of Shaha Raja, and Guru of Sultan Abul Hasan Qutb Shah of Golconda (1672-87 A.D.), who was captured by Aurangzeb in 1687 and who died in 1704 A.D. Akbar was born about 1646 and died between 1672 and 1675 A.D. The Sanskrit work mentioned is said to be a translation of a Telugu original by Akbar Shah himself. Possibly at the instance of Akbar some Telugu scholar wrote the original Śṛṅgāra-mañjarī in Telugu, and a Sanskrit scholar translated it (V. Raghavan, introd. p. 7). The work is based on Bhānudatta's Rasa-mañjarī, and is concerned mainly with the theme of Nāyaka-Nāyikā, topically dealing with Śṛṅgāra-rasa. Total number of verses 312.

2. ACYUTA ŚARMAN or ACYUTARĀYA MODAKA

Sāhitya-sāra and its commentary Sarasāmoda

(Ed. in litho MS form, Bombay 1860; ed. W. L. Panshikar, NSP, Bombay 1906)

The work is dated in Saka 1753 = 1831 A.D. The author describes himself as pupil of Şaşti Nārāyaņa. He was son of

1 Doubtful names to be found in some catalogues, as well as those about which there is no reliable information, have been omitted in this list; and care has been taken to avoid useless or trifling entries.

Nārāyaṇa and Annapūrṇā and lived at Pañcavatī near Nasik. He appears to be identical with Acyutarāya who wrote the *Praṇaya-prakāśa* commentary on Jagannātha's *Bhāminī-vilāsa*; for in it he refers to the *Sāhitya-sāra* as his own (ed. N. S. P. 1894, p. 1), citing the verses i. 14-15 from the latter. In his *Sāhitya-sāra*, again, he refers to the *Bhāminī-vilāsa* at p. 7.

The work consists of twelve chapters called Ràtnas, the metaphor being that these precious' doctrines are churned by the author from the ocean of Alamkara-śāstra. chapters are accordingly named: 1. Dhanvantari-ratna (the general characteristics of kāvya). 2. Airāvata-ratna (function of subda and artha), 3. Indira-ratna (the vyangya and its occasions), 4. Daksināvarta-kambu-ratna (divisions of dhvani, including rasa-dhvani), 5. Aśvavara-ratna (other inferior divisions of dhvani), 6. Visa-ratna (dosa), 7. Guna-ratna (guna), 8. Kaustubha-ratna (arthālamkāras), 9. Kāmadhenu-ratna (śabdālamkāras), 10. Rambhā-ratna (nāyikā), 11. Candra-ratna (nāyaka) and 12. Amrta-ratna (conclusion). Quite a recent writer, who holds some novel views which are neither historically nor theoretically sound. He is identical with Acyuta, author of the Bhagirathi-champū (written in the 1814 A.D.), who is described by Aufrecht (i. 770b) as son of Nārāyana. This work is divided into seven chapters called manerathas. For the author and his other works, some of which are dated, see New Cat. Cat. i. p. 59-60.

3. AJITASENĀCĀRYA or AJITASENA-DEVA YATĪŠVARA

- a. Alamkāra-cintāmaņi
 (Ed. by Padmaraja Pandit in the Kāvyāmbudhi
 1893-94; see Ind. Office Printed Bks., 1938, p. 72)
- b. Śrńgāra-mañjarī (ŚgŚ ii, pp. 83, 231 extract; Madras Cat. xxii 12956-57)

The author was a Digambara Jaina priest of Cāmuṇḍa-rāya, minister of the Ganga king Rācamalla, and flourished in

the latter part of the 10th century. He was a teacher of Nāgavarman, a Kanarese poet, who lived under the protection of Rakkasa Ganga, younger brother of Rācamalla. His works were written in the Śāntīśvara temple at Bangavāḍipura. He wrote the Alamkāra-cintāmaņi in five chapters. Ajitasena also wrote Cintāmaņi-prakāśikā on Yakṣavarman's Cintāmaṇi, which is itself a commentary on Śākaṭāyana's Śabdānuśāsana. See Rice p. 308. The Ajitasena who was the author of the Kālidāsa apocrypha Śruta-bodha on Metrics is probably a different person.

There is another Ajitasena of the Senagaņa who wrote the Śṛṅgāra-mañjarī at the instance of a Jaina Ālūpa prince of the lunar race¹, named Rāya or Kāmirāya, son of Viṭṭhala-devī, for his instruction. It consists of three chapters and 128 stanzas, dealing with (1) pada-doṣa (viz. alakṣaṇa, śruti-kaṭu, vyāghātārtha, anarthaka, aprasiddha, neyārtha, grāmya, and asaṃmata), which ends with a discussion of the Vṛttis, (2) the ten guṇas of Vāmana and (3) arthālaṃkāras (viz. upamā, rūpaka, jāti, bhrāntimat, hetu, saṃśaya. prativastūpamā, ākṣepa, dṛṣṭānta and tulyayogitā). On the two Ajitasenas see New Cat. Cat. i, p. 69 which, however, distinguishes all the known Ajitasenas.

The entry of Alamkāra-cintāmaņi as a work of Śāntarāja is some MS Catalogue is a mistake, for Śāntarāja was the scribe and not the author of the work.

4. AŅURATNAMAŅDANA or RATNAMAŅDANA GAŅI

a. Jalpa-kalpalatā

(Weber 1722, long extract given ii, pp. 278-80)

This Jaina author was a pupil of Ratnasekhara Sūri² of Tapā-gaccha, who died in Samvat 1517=1460-61 A.D.³

- 1 Among the Alūpa princes matriarchy prevailed. Bangavādi was the capital perhaps of a branch of the Alūpas.
- 2 For Ratnasekhara, see Bhandarkar Rep. 1883-84, pp. 156-7: Peterson iv, p. cii f; IA xi, p. 256.
- 3 Ratnasekhara Süri composed his Kriyā-ratna-samuccaya (ed. Jaina Yosovijaya Granthamālā Series) in Samvat 1466=1410 A.D.

Anuratna, therefore, belonged roughly to the middle of the 15th century. The work, in three stabakas, gives practical instruction on poetical composition (kavi-siksā).

b. Mugdha-medhākara Alamkāra-vrtti (Peterson vi, p. xv, extract given at p. 31; also BORI Cat. xii, p. 222-23)

A manual on poetic figures and kindred topics.

5. ANANTA

Sāhitya-kalpavallī (Madras Trm. Cat. no. 5483)

The author was of Tirumala family and Sathamarşanagotra and son of Tocamāmbā. He was a protégé of the Orissa king Gajapati Puruşottama-deva. The work is fully called Gajapati-Purusottamadeva-Sāhityakalpavallī

6. ANANTĀRYA or ANANTĀCĀRYA (Anantālvan)

Kavi-samaya-kallola (Madras Cat. xxii 12808, extract)

This recent South Indian writer of the Śeṣācārya family was son of Śiṅgarācārya. His family was resident at Yādavagiri or Melkote in Mysore. The work cites from Dharmasūri, Narasiṃha's Nañjarāja-yaśo-bhūṣaṇa, and Pratāparudrīya. He flourished in the court of Kṛṣṇarāja Wodeyar III. His dates are 1822-62 A.D. He refers to a Kāvya by himself, called Kṛṣṇarāja-yaśo-ḍiṇḍima, He was a Viśiṣṭādvaitin and wrote a large number of Vādas which have been published in Vedanta-vādavalī, Bangalore 1898 etc. (See New Cat. Cat. i. p. 143).

7. AMRTĀNANDA YOGIN

Alamkāra-samgraha

(ed. Calcutta 1887 with Engl. trans.; ed. also in the Adyar Library Series, and by the Sri Venkatesvara Oriental Institute, Tirupati. MS in *Madras Cat.* xxii, 12794, extract)

The work consists of five chapters dealing with (1) varņagaņa, (2) śabdārtha. (3) rasa-bhāva. (4) nāyaka-bheda, and (5) alaṃkāra. The author says that he wrote this work at the request of Manvasamudra, son of Bhakti-bhūmipati, who was a devotee of Siva. It appears from the introductory verse that the author also intended to deal with guṇa, doṣa and daṣa-rūpaka. He is not identical with the Tāntrika Amṛtānandanātha (pupil of Puṇyānanda) who is said to have corrected (Weber p. 361) the Tantra-sāra of Kṛṣṇānanda; but in the introd. to his Yoginī-hṛdaya-dīpikā (ed. Sarasvati Bhavan Text, no. 7) it is said that this Amṛtānanda could not have done so because Kṛṣṇānanda was much later in date.

8. ARUNAGIRI KAVI

Godavarma yaśo-bhūşuṇa

(Printed in Journal of Travancore Univ. MS Library, vol. i)
The work is on Arthalamkaras only. The author is described as belonging to the Kaundinya-gotra, son of śesadri and pupil of Venkajadri. He was patronised by Godavarma, king of Vadakkumkūr. Circa 1550-1650 A.D.

9. ALLARĀJA or MALLARĀJA

Rasa-ratna-pradīpikā

(Ed. R. N. Dandekar, Bharatiya Vidya Series 8, Bombay 1945; the work called is Rasa-ratna-pradīpikā)

A work called Rasa-ratna-dīpikā is cited by Bhānudatta in his Rasa-taraṅgiṇī (=Allarāja v. 57), and by Ratnakaṇtha on Mammata (Peterson ii, p. 17). See above p. 242, fn 4. The work is called Rasa-ratna-pradīpa by Allarāja in Bhandarkar Rep. 1884-87, no. 533. The author was son of Hammīra, the Cauhan king of Ranathambor who conquered Końkaņa and whose regnal period was 1283-1301 A.D.¹ The work is a manual of six chapters (called Paricchedas) which deals in prose and verse exclusively with the topic of Rasa and Bhāva.

1 The question of Allaraja's date is discussed by the editor of the text. In honour of this Hammira Nayacandra Sūri wrote his Hammira-Mahākāvya in 1486 (ed. N. J. Kirtane, Bombay 1879).

It borrows verbatim extensively from Bharata and the Daśarūpaka. There is hardly any originality either in subjectmatter or treatment.

10 ĀŚĀDHARA

Kovidānanda (Aufrecht ii. 25a)

Trivenikā (ed. Batuknath Sarma and J. S. Hoshing, Sarasvati Bhavana Texts, Benares 1925).

We have already mentioned above (p. 228) Āśādhara as the author of the Alamkāra-dīpikā commentary on Kuvdiayānanda. He was son of Rāmajī and disciple of Dharanīdhara. and should be distinguished from the much earlier Jaina Āśādhara, son of Sallaksaņa and commentator on Rudrata (see p. 93). The Koviaanada, with its commentary called Kādambinī, is concerned (as the author himself states) with Sabda-vyāpāra-nirnaya. His (Sabda-) Trivenikā 'having three streams' also deals with the same theme of the three Vrttis. namely. Abhidhā. Laksanā and Vyanjanā and refers frequently to his Kovidānanda. As Āśādhara comments on Appayya's work and quotes Bhattoji's Siddhanta-kaumudī he must be later than the first half of the 17th century. A MS of his Alamkūra-dīpikā is dated in Saka 1775 (=1850 A.D.). while a MS of his Kovidananda appears to have been copied in Saka 1783 (=1861 A.D.) In all probability Āśādhara flourished in the middle and latter half of the 18th century.

11. INDRAJIT

Rasika-priyā in 16 Pravāhas (Peterson vi, no. 379)

A MS of this work in BOR1 MS Cat. xii, p. 293 is dated Samvat 1729 (=1672-73 A.D.). In two of the BORI MSS the author is called Mahārāja-kumāra in the colophon. This is not a Sanskrit but an old Hindi work. The author also wrote a Bāla-bodha commentary on the Vairāgya-śataka

¹ R. G. Bhandarkar, List of Skt. MSS, pt. i, Bombay 1893, p. 68.

(Aufrecht iii. 13b). Bühler mentions (ZDMG, xliii. p. 543) a work on Alamkāra called Rāmacandra-candrikā by Indrajila (sic), the date of which is given as 1712 A.D.

12. KACCHAPEŚVARA DĪKŞITA

Rāmacandra-yaśo-bhūşaṇa

(Madras Cat. xxii, 12950, extract)

The author was son of Vāsudeva and grandson of Kālahastīśvara who was a native of Brahmadeśa, a village in the North Arcot district. He wrote also a commentary on the *Bhāgavata*. His grandfather had two other sons, named Nārāyaṇa and Kṛṣṇa, his father being the second son. The work consists of three chapters dealing with the Rasas, viz. (1) Śṛṅgāra, (2) the other 8 Rasas, (3) Bhāva-nirūpaṇa. The illustrations are in praise of the valour of Bommarāja (probably of the Karvetnagar zamindary in North Arcot).

13. KANDĀLAYĀRYA

Alamkāra-sirobhūşaņa

(Hultzsch i no, 371, extract at p. 75; Madras Trm A 168)

The author was son of Rāmānujārya of the Kauśika-gotra and grandson of Keśavārya of the Rāyalūri family. He tells us that he lived in the court of Veňkaṭa-bhūpati, son of Soma-bhūpati (and Giryambā), who was son of Nallareḍḍi of Muṣṭipallī (also called Pākanāḍu) family and of Miṭillagotra. He resided in Naḍigaḍḍa country which lies between the Tungabhadrā and Kṛṣṇā. But see New Cat. Cat. i, p. 297a. It seems that he probably lived at the court of either Veňkaṭa I or II of the third Vijayanagar dynasty¹, and was thus a contemporary of Appayya Dīkṣita. The work is in ten Ullāsas as follow: (i) Upodghāta (ii) Kāvya-lakṣaṇa (iii) Dhvani-prakaraṇa (iv) Rasa-prakaraṇa (v) Doṣa-praka-

¹ Hultzsch ibid, p. viii. But see New Cat. Cat. i, p. 297a.

raņa (vi) Guņa-prakaraņa (vii-ix) Kāvyaviśeşa-prakaraņa (x) Nāyaka-prakaraņa.

14. KALYĀŅA-SUBRAHMAŅYA SŪRI

Alamkāra-kaustubha with commentary

(\$g\$ ii, pp. 80, 220 extract; Madras Cat. xxii, 12790)

The author was son of Subrahmanya and grandson of Gopāla of the Perūru or Perur family. The work invokes and sings the praise throughout of Padmanābha, the god of the temple of Anantasayana (Travancore), and of the Vañjipāla (Bāla-) Rāma Varma Kulasekhara, king of Travancore (1758-98). It deals with Arthālamkāras only, gives the characteristics of those figures that are dealt with in the Candrāloka, and illustrates them with examples composed by the author himself in praise of his patron and his deity.¹

15. KĀŚĪ or KASHĪKARA LAKSMAŅA KAVI

Alamkāra-grantha (Burnell 54a).

This work was probably written at the end of the 17th or beginning of the 18th century, as the examples are all in praise of the Tanjore prince Sāhajī (1684-1711 A.D.). It is also called Sāharājīya. See Tanjore Descriptive Cat. ix, nos. 5304-05. Also see V. Raghavan's ed. of Sāhendra-vilāsa, Tanjore Sarasvati Mahal Series (p. 23).

16. KĀŚĪŚVARA MIŚRA

Rasa-mīmāmsā

This work is mentioned and cited by Visvesvara Kavicandra (q.v.) in his Camatkāra-candrikā, ch. v: tathā coktam

1 On this author see K. Kunjunni Raja, Contribution of Kerala to Skt. Lit. (Madras 1958), p. 175. Bāla Rāma Varman appears also to be eulogised in the illustrative verses of Bālarāma-varma-yaśobhūṣaṇa of Sadāśiva Dīkṣita which includes (as some Yaśobhuṣaṇa works do) a play in five Acts, called Vasu-lakṣmī-kalyāṇa, of which the king is the hero. See Cat. Trivandrum Palace Lib. vi, p. 2354.

samad-ācāryaiḥ kāšīśvara-miśraiḥ rasa-mīmāṃsāyām. As Viśveśvara's teacher his date would be about 1300 A.D. Sec V. Raghavan in ABORI, xvi (1934-35), p. 139-40.

17. KUMĀRAGIRI

Vasanta-rājīya Nāţya-śāstra

The author is quoted by Kāṭayavema as his patron1. The work is cited by Kumārasvāmin as vasanta-rājīya p. 178. by Mallinātha on Sisu ii. 8 and by Sarvananda on Amara-kosa². These citations make it clear that this metrical work on Dramaturgy can not be later than the 14th century. This Nātya-śāstra, probably an Andhra work, is also mentioned in a commentary on the Southern recension of the Sakuntalā by Kātayavema who is described as a minister of king Vasantarāja Kumāragiri. This commentary proposes to follow the exposition of Vasantarāja's Nātya-śāstra (IOC vii, p. 157-76). The author's genealogy is given in a MS of the work, which states that Vasantarāja Kumāragiri was son of Anapota and grandson of Vema Reddi. Kātayavema was son of Kātayabhūpati by his wife Woddamba, who was the daughter of Vema Reddi The Reddi king Kumāragiri ruled in the Telugu country in the second half of the 14th century. As his work is lost, we know nothing about its scope and extent, but later citations show that it dealt chiefly with Dramaturgy and incidentally with Rasa.

18. KUMBHA or KUMBHAKARŅA, Śrīrājādhirāja

Rasa-ratna-kośa (Aufrecht i. 495b)

A MS of this work in Devanagari characters in the Paris

- 1 Burnell 173a. 2 \$g\$ ii, p. 30.
- 3 In Madras Trm I A 295 (6), but the stanzas are missing in Burnell and IOC MSS.
- 4 For a discussion of genealogy and time of this Reddi king (2nd half of the 14th century) see Introd, to Vanivilasa Press ed. (1906) of Pārvatī-pariņaya; N. Venkata Rao, Vasantarājīya in Pathak Comm. Vol., Poona 1934, pp. 401f.

Biblioth. Nationale (no. 243) is described by Regnaud p. 379. It is a treatise on Rasa and kindred topics in eleven chapters, dealing with (1) 1-4 rasas, (2) 5-6 nāyaka and nāyikā, (3) 7 abhinaya, (4) 8-9 anubhāva and vyabhicāri-bhāvas, (5) 10-11 rasa and bhāva. The treatment and subject-matter correspond to those of the 3rd chapter of the Sāhitya darpaņa and Bhānudatta's two works on Rasa. The author is probably king Kumbha of Mewad (1428-1459 A.D.) who wrote, besides some treatises on Saṃgīta, a commentary entitled Rasika-priyā (ed. NSP. 1917) on Jayadeva's Gīta-govinda, and flourished in the first half of the 15th century.

19. KURAVIRĀMA

Daśarūpaka-paddhati

See above pp. 127, 229 for information about this author.

20. KRŞNA

Sāhitya-tarangiņī (Aufrecht ii 171a)

21. KŖŞŅA DĪKŞITA or KŖŞŅA YAJVAN

Raghunātha-bhūpālīya

(Aufrecht i. 446a; Madras Trm C 656d; Adyar II, p. 336)

The work was written in honour of the author's patron, whose name it bears in its title, after the manner of the *Pratāpa-rudra-yaśobhūṣaṇa* of Vidyānatha who is referred to as Vidyāpati in the introductory part. Raghunātha, son of Acyuta, distinguished himself as one of the Nāyaka rulers of Tanjore (17th century A.D.) and patron of literature. His mistress Rudrāmbā wrote the semi-historical poem, *Raghunāthā-bhyudaya*, to celebrate in twelve cantos the greatness of her

¹ The work appears from citations in his Rasika-priyā to be a part of the author's voluminous Saṃgīta-rāja; see V. Raghavan in ABORI, xiv, 1933, pp. 258-62. Kumbha also wrote a comm. on the Saṃgīta-ratnākara of Sārṅgadeva.

² Ed. T. R. Chintamani, Madras Univ. 1934.

lover. Kṛṣṇa Dīkṣita's work consists of eight Vilāsas dealing with (i) Nāyaka-guṇa (ii) Kāvya-svarūpa (iii) Saṃlakṣya-krama-vyaṅgya (iv) Asaṃlakṣya-krama-vyaṅgya (v) Guṇī-bhūta-vyaṅgya (vi) Śabdālaṃkāra (vii) Arthālaṃkārà and (viii) Guṇa. Kṛṣṇa Yajvan also appears to have written an Alaṃkāra-muktāvalī. A commentary called Sāhitya-sāmrājya by Sumatīndra Yati, pupil of Sudhīndra-pūjyapāda, is mentioned in Rice 288.—Another work of this type which praises Shahaji of Tanjore (1648-1710) is Sāharājīya of Lakṣmaṇa Kavi; see above p. 270, no. 15.

22. KRSNA BHATTA or JAYAKRSNA MAUNIN

Vrtti-dīpikā (Aufrecht i. 598a)

The author was a grammarian, and the work probably dealt with the grammatico-rhetorical question of the Vittis of words. For his other works, see Aufrecht i. 198a. He is described as son of Raghunātha Bhaṭṭa and grandson of Govardhana Bhaṭṭa.

23. KŖŞŅA ŚARMAN or KŖŞŅĀVADHŪTA

a. Mandāra-maranda-campū

(ed. Sivadatta and K. P. Parab, Nir. Sag. Press Bombay 1895, with *Mādhurya-rañjanī* commentary)

- b. Kāvya-laksaņa
- c. Sārasvatālamkāra, Sūtra and Bhāşya

The first-named work is a so-called Campū dealing in reality with Prosody, Dramaturgy and Poefics, as well as practical Kavi-śikṣā. The work consists of eleven chapters called bindus, dealing with (1) chandas (2) nāyaka-varṇana (3) śleṣa (4) yamaka and citra (5) the different bandhas (6) enigmatology (7) dramaturgy (8) nāyaka-lakṣaṇa (9) bhāva and rasa (10) alaṃkāra with dhvani-nirūpaṇa etc. and (11) doṣa, which however includes sections on śabdārtha, the three vṛttis etc., pāka, kāvya-bheda, and a section of practical hints for

descriptive poetry. The work appears to be ill-arranged and ill-digested, having no fixed theory but forming a cyclopaedic compilation from various sources, meant to serve as a complete handbook for the poet. The author, who is described as an inhabitant of Guhapura and a pupil of Vāsudeva Yogīśvara. gives us no clue to his date; but his work belongs to quite recent times. He copies, for instance, many definitions and illustrations from Appayya's Kuvalayānanda, and even appropriates the whole section on Paka from Vidyanatha. Some of the new poetic figures, which appear to be first adduced and illustrated by Appayya, find a place in this comprehensive compilation. For the author and his work see Karnatak Univ. Journal (Humanities), 1957, pp. 127f. His date is given as 1835-1909 A.D. He also wrote a commentary Rasa-prakāśa on Mammata (see p. 173).

24. KŖŞŅA SUDHĪ

Kāvya-kalānidhi

The author was son of Sivarāma and grandson of Upadeṣṭṭ-paṇḍita Nārāyaṇa. He was a native of Uttaramerūr in Toṇḍaimaṇḍalam on the banks of the Ceyyār near Kāñcī. He wrote the Kavya-kalānidhi in 1845 A.D. under the patronage of Ravivarman, rājā of Kolaṭṭanāḍ. The work is in ten sections in which the illustrations are all in praise of the poet's patron.¹

25. KŖŞŅA SŪRI

Alamkāra-mīmāmsā (Madras Cat. xxii, no. 2700)

The author was son of Gopālācārya, who was son of Kṛṣṇārya of the Śāntalūri family. There is one Kṛṣṇa Sūri who wrote a commentary called Ratna-śobhākara on the Alaṃkāra-muktāvalī of Ramasudhī, son of Nṛṣiṃha (ed. in Telugu script, Vizagapatam 1897-98).

¹ See K. Kunjunni Raja, Contribution of Kerala to Skt. Lit. pp 62, 244.

26. KEŚAVA BHATTA

Rasika-samjīvanī

(Aufrecht i. 127b, 497b; Br. Mus. no. 424, extract)

The work, dealing with Rasa is in three vilāsas. The author, son of Harivaṃśa Bhaṭṭa, is claimed as a Vaiṣṇava disciple of Viṭṭhaleśvara, who is apparently the son of the reformer Vallabhācārya. Hence our author probably belongs to the second half of the 16th century. He is not the same as Keśava Bhaṭṭa Kāśmīrī, son of Śrīmaṅgala and a veteran champion of the Nimbārka school¹. The first Vilāsa (11 śl. only) of the work is mainly introductory; the second deals with nāyikās, and the third with māna, praṇaya, rāga, śṛṅgāra etc.

27. KOLLŪRI RĀJASEKHARA

Alamkāra-makaranda (Mudras Trm 2285)

The author belonged to a family of Drāvidas of Perūru in Andhra. The work quotes Catmatkāra-candrikā (see below under Viśveśvara Kavicandra) and praises a chief called Rāmeśvara of Anipindivamśa, son of Viśveśvara and Kāmakṣī, and described as Ammanna Mahī-mahendra of Mukteśvara (near Godāvarī). This Rājaśekhara is said to have been also patronised by Peshwa Madhava Rao (1760-72 A.D.).

28. GANGĀDHARA MIŚRA

Catura-cintāmaņi

(H. P. Sāstri, Cat. ASB MSS, vi, 4934/8162, p. 485-86)

This is a work on the nine Rasas, but chiefly on Śrngāra Rasa, in eighteen Prakāsas. The author is described as son of Miśra Samdoha.

¹ See S. K. De, Vaisnava Faith and Movement, 1942, p. 55 tn.

29. GANGĀNANDA MAITHILA

Karna-bhūşana

(ed. Bhavadatta and K. P. Parab, Nir. Sag. Press, Bombay 1902)

Kāvya-dākinī

(ed. P. Jagannath Hoshing, Sarasvati Bhavana Texts, Benares 1924)

The first is a work on the Rasas in five chapters, dealing with (1) vibhāvas (2) anubhāvas (3) vyabhicāri-bhāvas (4) sthāyi-bhāvas and (5) rasa. It was written, as the author himself says, at the command of king Śrīkarņa of Bikaner (bikāneri-purī), who appears to be the same as Lūņakarņajī who ruled at Bikaner from 1505 to 1526 A.D. The Kāvya-ḍākinī deals in five chapters (called Dṛṣṭis) with Doṣas.

30. GANGĀRĀMA JADI or JADIN

Rasa-mīmāmsā

(ed. with his own *Chāyā*, Kashi Samskrita Press, Benares 1885)

It is a small work of 114 verses on the poetic sentiments. For details about the author and his commentary on Bhānudatta's work, see above p. 250. He belongs to the second quarter of the 18th century.

31. GADĀDHARA BHAŢŢA

Rasika-jīvana (Aufrecht i. 497b, 11. 116b).

This work on Rasa, which bears the character of an anthology rather than a work on Poetics, is in ten prabandhas and contains 1562 verses comprising selection from no less than 122 authors. The author is the son of Gauripati or Gaurisa and Umā, and grandson of Dāmodara. Regnaud (p. 379) gives an account of the Paris Biblioth. Nationale MS of this work. The work quotes Jagannātha's Rasa-

gangādhara, and hence it must be later than the middle of the 17th century.1

32. GIRIDHARA

Kalyāņa-kallola

(H. P Sastri, Cat. ASB MSS, vi, 4932/8312, p. 482)

This is a work on the nine Rasas (including Santa) composed under the patronage of Kalyana Dasa, son of Todara Malla.

33. GOKULANĀTHA MAITHILA

Rasa-mahārņava

The author is the celebrated Maithili Smārta and Naiyāyika Gokulanātha, son of Pītāmbara and Umādevī of Phaṇadaha family in Maṅgraunī, who lived and wrote in Benares at the end of the 17th and beginning of the 18th century. The work is referred to by himself in his Padavākya-ratnākara.² He is probably the same as wrote a commentary on Mammata, see above p. 173. His drama Amrtodaya (written about 1693 A.D.) has been published in Kāvyamālā 59, Nir. Sag. Press, Bombay 1897^a.

34. GAURANĀRYA

Lakşana-dipikā

Prabandha-dīpikā or Padārtha-dīpikā (Madras Cat. xxii, 12951, extract)

The first work, which breaks off with the sixth prakāśa, deals with (1) kāvya-svarūpa (2) paribhāṣā (3) kāvya-lakṣaṇa-

¹ P. K. Gode in ABORI xii, pp. 296-99 and Hara Dutt Sarma in Jha Comm. Volume pp. 359-65. For list of authors quoted see BORI MS Cat. xii, no. 247, at p. 288-90.

² ABod 246a.

¹ 3 See HPS i p. 17f.

bheda (4) kalikotkalikādi (5) udāharņa-bheda and (6) nāyikā. The other work Padartha-dīpikā covers common ground. The author is described as son of Ayamaprabhu and brother of Mitarāja, who was minister of Singaya Mādhava The work cites Sāhitya-cūdāmaņi (of Recarla family. Bhatta Gopāla?). Another work in four paricchedas, also called Lakşana-dīpikā (consisting of Kārikā and Vrtti), is attributed in the same Catalogue (no. 12952, extract) to Gauranarya; but the author is here described as son of Ayyalu-mantrin, brother of amātya Potama. They may be identical. The latter work cites the Alamkara-samgraha, Kavi-kantha-pāśa, Camatkāra-candrikā, Sāhitva-candrodava and Sūhitya-ratnākara (of Dharma Sūri?). The Kavi-kanthapāsa, of which two MSS (without the name of the author) are noticed in Madras Cat. xii 12802-03, is a treatise (said to be based on some work of Pingala's) on the characteristics of a poet's personal appearance and qualities, on the effect of the initial words of a poem, on the auspicious day for beginning a composition and so forth.

35. GHĀSI or GHĀSĪ RĀMA PAŅDITA

a. Rasa-candra

(IOC iii, 1210/295, pp. 351-53; extract)

b. Rasa-kaumudī

(Madras Cat. xii 12921, extract; BORI MSS Cat. xxii, no. 197, p. 223)

The first work was composed in 1696 A.D. The second work describes the nine Rasas. The anonymous Rasa-kaumudī in Peterson v. 414 refers apparently to this work. The Rasa-candra is in four chapters, dealing with: 1. nāyikā-gaṇa-bheda (198 śl.), 2. nāyaka-saṃgha (85 śl.), 3. anubhāvādi gaṇa

1 P. K. Gode (Ca). Orient. Journal 111, pp. 35-37) gives the latter half of the 18th century A.D. as the probable date of this anonymous work.

(150sl.), 4. rasa-dasaka (162sl.). Is this Ghāsīrāma of Gautama-vamsa identical with Ghāsīrāma Bhaṭṭa, father Śrīnātha who wrote the medical work Jagat-prakāsa (Stein pp. 193, 348)? He, however, appears to be the same as wrote the Padyamuktāvalī (erotic verses).

36. CANDĪDĀSA

Dhvani-siddhanta-grantha

The work is referred to by himself in his commentary on Mammata. See above p. 160.

37. CANDRACŪDA

Prastāva-cintāmaņi (Ulwar 1064, extract 223; Weber 826)

It is a work in five Ucchvāsas on the art of writing poetic descriptions. The author is described as son of Purusottama Bhatta. For citations in this work, see Weber loc. cit. It cites Candraśekara-campū-prabandha which, Regnaud thinks, is a campū by Candraśekhara, father of Viśvanātha (q. v.)

38. CIRAÑJĪVA or RĀMADEVA (VĀMADEVA) CIRAÑJĪVA BHATTĀCĀRYA

a. Kāvya-vilāsa

(Ed. Batuk Nath Sarma and Jagannath Sastri Hoshing. Sarasvati Bhavana Texts, Benares 1925. See *IOC*, iii no. 1191, pp. 343-44 for a detailed summary of contents.

b. Sṛṅgāra-taţinī (Aufrecht i. 660b).

The author was son of Rāghavendra (described as ācārya-satāvadhāna) and grandson of Kāśīnātha of Rādhāpura in Gauḍa country. He is the author of the Vidvanmodatarahgiṇī (a campū)¹ and also of Vṛtta-ratnāvalī, a work on

1 Ed. Venkatesvara Press, Bombay 1912; also ed. Satyavrata Samasrami in the *Hindu Commentator* iv, nos. 1-4, 1871; and ed. Kalikrishna Deb, Serampore Press 1832 (text and trs.), 2nd ed. 1834. The author's genealogy as above is given by himself in this work.

prosody. The India Office MS, as well as the printed text, of the Kāvya-vilāsa consists of two chapters (called Bhangi). dealing with Rasa and Alamkara respectively. We are told that the definitions in this work are taken from old standard writers, while the illustrative stanzas are the author's own. The section on sabdalamkara from this work has been printed and inadvertantly included in the text of Appayva's Kuvalayānanda, published by N. S. P. (ed. Vāsudeva L. Panshikar Bombay, 1909) with Asadhara's commentary. See above p. 223 fn 3. The illustrative verses of his Vrtta-ratnāvalī² panegyrise Yasovanta Simha, Nayeb-dewan of Dacca under Sujau-d-daulah of Bengal, about Saka 1653 = 1731 A.D. His Kāvya-vilāsa was composed in 1703 A.D. He belongs, there fore, to the last quarter of the 17th and first half of the 18th century. Ciranjīva also wrote Mādhava-campū (ed. Satyavrata Samasrami, in the Hindu Commentator iv. no. 4-7. Calcutta 1871), as well as Kalpa-latā and Siva-stotra mentioned in his Kāvva-vilāsa.

39. JAYAMANGALA

Kavi-śiksā (Peterson i, no. 120, extract)

This work is apparently cited by Ratnakantha on Stutikusumānjali'i. 1. The author was a Jaina who wrote at the time of Jayasimha Siddharāja (1094-1143 A.D.) and was thus a contemporary of Hemacandra³.

40. JINAVALLABHA SŪRI

Praśnottara (Br. Mus. MS no. 426, extract)

This is a collection of riddles and verbal puzzles. On the author (about 1110 A.D.), see Klatt p. 36 and Bhandarkar Rep 1882-83, p. 48, where other works of his are mentioned. It is accompanied by an avacūri by Kamalamandira.

- 1 See pp. 97-100 of this edition.
- 2 HPS iii. no. 280.
- 3 Peterson, Detailed Report 1883, p. 68

41, JĪVANĀTHA Alamkāra-śekhara (Oudh iii. 12)

42. TIRUMALA or TRIMALLA BHATTA

Alamkāra-mañjarī (extract in ALeip 851)

This South Indian author was son of Vallabhabhatta, and his name is also given as Trimmala or Tirmala, and sometimes incorrectly as Nirmala. The work, written in Benares in 43 verses, deals only with arthālaṃkāras¹. The Arthālamkāra-mañjarī entered under this author's name in Bühler's Catalogue (1871-73) is probably this work². The author appears to be identical with Trimalla Kavi, son of Vallabha and grandson of Śiṅghaṇa Bhatta, who wrote some works on medicine (see ALeip 1182-85). His date³ is fixed between 1383-1499 A D.

43. TRILOCANĀDITYA

Nātya-locana (Aufrecht i. 284b, iii. 61a)

This work (without the author's name) is extensively cited, e.g. by Rāghavabhaṭṭa on Śakuntalā ed. NSP, 1886, p. 7, by Vāsudeva on Karpūra-mañjarī, by Raṅganātha on Vikramorvaśīya i. 1, by Dinakara and Cārutravardhana on Raghu. As Dinakara's date is 1385 A D.4, this work cannot be placed later than the middle or third quarter of the 14th century. A commentary called, Locana-vyākhyāñjana, by the author himself, is mentioned in Oppert 2695.

44. TRYAMBAKA

Nāţaka-dīpa (Aufrecht i. 284b)

Three commentaries on the work are entered by Aufrecht

- 1 The list of 38 figures dealt with is given at the outset; the passage in quoted in ALeip, MS no. 851, p. 273.
- 2 New Catalogus Catalogorum i, p. 295 enters them separately. Most of the MSS contain Arthalamkara only.
 - 3 See Cat. R.A.S (Bombay Branch) vol. i, no. 126,p. 42.
 - 4 Nandargikar's ed. of Raghu, 1897. Pref. p. 17.

loc. cit. One of the Deccan College MSS of the work contains a Prakrit commentary.

45. DĀMODARA BHATTA HARŞE

Alamkāra-krama mālā (Aufrecht'i. 32a)

46. DĪNA KŖŞŅADĀSA

Rasa-kallola

The work was written about 1480 A.D. when Gajapati Puruşottama was reigning².

47. DEVANĀTHA

Rasika-prakāśa (Aufrecht i. 497b)

The author is probably the same as Devanātha Tarkapañcānana who wrote a commentary named Kāvya-kaumudī, on Mammaţa (see above p. 174). A Devanātha is cited by Bharatamallika (18th century) on Bhatţi x, 73

48. DEVAŚAMKARA, surnamed Purohita

Alamkāra-mañjūşā

(Ed, S. L. Katre, Scindia Orient, Ser. Ujjain 1940. See Bhandarkar, Rep. 1887-91 p. lxiiif, extract)

The author, a Gujarat Brahman, was son of Nāhanābhāi and a native of Rāner (Rānder near Surat), and lived at Uraḥpattana (probably Olpāḍ in the same district). The work deals with poetic figures alone, and the illustrations sing the glor; of the Peshwas Mādhava Rāo I of Poona and Nārāyaṇa Rāo. and their uncle Raghunātha Rāo who flourished between 1761 and 1772 A.D. The author, there-

¹ Deccan Coll. Catalogue p. 417 no. 38.—The comm. by Rāmakṛṣṇa Paṇḍita on Nāṭaka-dīpa is not a comm. on this work, but (as Aufrecht points out, i. 791a) a comm. on the Nāṭaka-dīpa in the Pañcadasī. Correct this error in Schuyler's Bibliography p. 18 and in Harichand Sastri, p. 35, no. 361,

² See IA i, p. 215.

fore, belonged to the third and fourth quarters of the 18th century.¹ The work deals almost exclusively with poetic figures, which are enumerated as 115 and classified into Arthā-laṃkāras (102), Pramāṇālaṃkāras (103-6), Dhvanyālaṃkāras (107-13) and Miśrālaṃkāras (114-15). The Kārikās, as well as prose explanations, are generally based on the corresponding passages of Appayya's Kuvalayānanda. In spite of its editor's eulogy, the work does not seem to be a striking or original contribution to the subject. Devaśaṃkara also wrote a commentary on the Amaru-śataka (Mitra x, pp. 81-82).

49. DHARMADĀSA SŪRI

Vidagdha-mukha-mandana, with vṛtti

(Ed. Haeberlin in Kāvyasaṃgraha, Calcutta 1847, p. 269f. Also in Kāvya-kalāpa (pub. Haridas Hirachand) Bombay 1865 Printed many times in India; but ed. N.S.P., Bombay 1914, is useful. MSS: Aufrecht i. 572b, ii. 135b, 225a, iii. 121a).

with enigmatology and Citra-kāvya, and at the same time describes the feeling of separation from a lover. The concluding verse in the Bombay edition of the text (wanting in Br. Mus. MS, Bendall no. 427), as well as the first verse (which invokes śauddhodani) and the colophon to Jinaprabha's commentary, makes the author a Buddhist ascetic. The known dates of Jinaprabha put the limit of Dharmadāsa's date earlier than the last quarter of the 13th century. This work is also cited by name by Kumārasvāmin (p. 122=iv. 1), by Rāyamukuṭa on Amara², and quoted in the Paddhati of Śārngadhara. These citations themselves would put the date of our author earlier than the 14th century.

Commentaries on this work are numerous:

- (1) By Jinaprabha Sūri, pupil of Jinasimha Sūri (Weber
- 1 See ABORI xv, pp. 92-96 and xxi p. 152-54.
- 2 Composed 1431 A.D.; see Bhandarkar, Rep. 1883-84, p. 63.

1728). For this Jaina writer, whose known dates are 1293 and 1309 A.D. see Peterson iv, p. xxxvii and Klatt's Onomasticon. His Guru Jinasimha founded the Laghukharatara-gaccha in 1275 A.D. The date of our commentator, therefore, will be the last quarter of the 13th and beginning of the 14th century. (2) Commentary by Atmarama. Aufrecht i. 573a. The full name of this writer appears to be Svātmārāma Yogindra. (3) Vidvan-manoramā by Tārācandra Kāyastha, Aufrecht i. 573a, ii. 135b, iii. 121a. For his other works, see ibid i. 229a. (4) Śravaņa-bhūşaņa by Narahari Bhatta, Aufrecht i. 573a. (5) Subodhinī by Trilocana. Aufrecht ii. 135b (extract in Stein p. 274). (6) Commentary by Sivacandra. Aufrecht iii 121a. Its date is 1613 A.D.¹ (7) "Tīkā by Durgādāsa, son of Vāsudeva and pupil of Bhatta Devacandra, Aufrecht ii. 135b, iii. 121a: extract in Peterson iv p. 36.

50. DHARMA SUDHĪ or DHARMA SŪRI

Sāhitya-ratnākara

(ed. Tiruvenkatacharya with commentary, Madras 1871; ed. Nellore 1885. MSS: Aufrecht i. 716a, ii. 171a, iii. 148a; BORI MSS Cat. xxii, no. 301, pp. 366-70 (extract); Madras Cat. xxii, 12970-75; HPS ii. no. 246, extract).

The author's name is given variously as Dharma-simha or Dharma-paṇḍita. Son of Parvatanātha and Allamāmba, he belonged to a Benares family distinguished for the high proficiency of its members in philosophical studies, and his genealogy is thus given (Hultzsch i. p. 70): Tripurāri-Dharma-Parvatanātha or Parvateśa-Dharma Sūri. He was also the author of two plays, called Naraka-dhvaṃsa or Narakā-suravījyaya¹ (a vyāyoga) and Kaṃsa-vadha (a nāṭaka), and of

¹ P. K. Gode in Journal of the Univ. Bombay, 1954, pp. 126-29.

¹ Ed. Madras 1885 (in Telugu characters); Hultzch 323, Aufrecht i. 277a.

some Kāvyas and Stotras. The author is cited by Anantārva (q. v.) in his Kavi-samaya-kallòla. A commentary on this Sāhitya-ratnākara, called "Naukā, by Venkata Sūri is mentioned in Madras Cat. xxii, 12974-75 (ed. Madhusudan Mishra, Bomra 1901). Venkaţa Sūri was son of Laksmana Sūri and Suramāmbā, and grandson of Brahmāntara-vāņi and disciple of Venkatācārya. There is another commentary called Mandara by Malladi Lakşana-süri (ed. Madras 1891 in Telugu characters). The Sāhitya-ratnākara (c. 1425 A.D.) is in ten tarangas, dealing with the conventional topics of Poetics as follow: (i) Granthārambha (ii) Vācaka-śabdārthavṛtti (iii) Lakṣaṇā-śabdārtha-vṛtti (v) Guṇa (vi) Śabdālaṃkāra (vii) Arthālamkāra (viii) Doşa (ix) Dhvani-bheda (x) Rasa. Most of the illustrative verses are in praise of Rama as a deity (śrīmat-raghu-tilaka-yaśoghanasāra-surabhita). Dharma Sūri must have been later than Vidyanatha; for in one of his verses he anonymously ridicules Vidyanatha's method of praising his patron (alamkriyāh pūrvataraih pranītāh / prayogitāh kāścana nāyakena/kaiścit tu kuksimbharibhir nibaddhāh / ksodīvasā kāscana nāvakeņa). His date is roughly the first half of the 15th century.1

51. NARASIMHA

Guṇa-ratnākara (Tanjore Cat. ix, no 5207, p. 4028)

This work deals with a hundred poetic figures. It was written under Serfoji of Tanjore (1684-1710 A.D.)

52. NARASIMHA or NRSIMHA KAVI

Nañjarāja-yaśo-bhūşaṇa

(Ed. E. Krishnamacharya, Gaekwad Orient. Ser. Baroda 1930)

The author, son of Sivarāma-sudhī-maņi and disciple of an ascetic Yogānanda, belonged to the Sanagara class of Brah-

1 See E.M.V. Raghavacharya in *Proc. A-1.O.C* ix. Trivandrum 1940, pp. 503-17; also *NIA* ii, 1939, pp. 428-441 for Dharma Sūri's date and works. The date of the work is given as c. 1425 A.D.

mans, and was patronised by Nanjaraja, whose name is borne by the title of his work and whose glory it sings in the illustrative verses. Nanjaraja was Sarvadhikarana (revenue minister) of Chikka Krishnaraja of Mysore from 1739 to 1759 A.D. after which came Nanjaraja's downfall terminating with his miserable death in Hyder Ali's imprisonment in 1773. Narasimha's work must have been written during the twenty years of his patron's flourishing period. The work is divided into seven chapters called Vilasas; and it deals with all topics of Poetics including Dramaturgy. The seven Ullasas deal with (1) Nāyaka (2) Kāvya-svarūpa (3) Dhvani (4-5) Dosa-Guna (6) Nātya, including Candrakalā-kalyana (a short typical drama) (7) Alamkāra. It is obviously modelled on the Prataparudra-yaśobhūśana of Vidyanatha and freely appropriates much of its subject-matter verbatim. He inserts. after Vidyānātha, a model five-act drama called Candrakalākalyāna to illustrate his treatment of Dramaturgy in ch. vi. The author had the grandiose title Abhinava-Kālidāsa: and he describes himself as the friend of Abhinava Bhavabhūti. (alias Alūra Tırumala-kavi).

53. NARASIMHĀCĀRYA OF VENKAŢA NŖSIMHA KAVI

Alamkārendu-śekhara

(Madras Cat. xxii, 12978, extract; contains the first prakarana only)

This South Indian author was son of Dāsamācārya of Śrīśaila family and wrote a commentary on a work on music, called Śānta-vilāsa, composed by Subrahmaṇya Sudhī (alias Hariśāba Kavīndra) son of Harirāya and grandson of Kṛṣṇa-rāya of Cariṣṇusāla village. He refers to a Gīta-mañjarī by this Hariśāba Kavīndra, and to a Campū of his own called Jānakī-pariṇaya, and quotes Sāhitya-ratnākara of Dharma Sūri. The manual on Alaṃkāra mentioned above deals in five Prakaraṇas with (1) nāyaka lakṣaṇa (2) kāvya svarūpa (3) rasa-lakṣaṇa, especially śṛṅgāra (4) doṣa and guṇa, and

(5) alamkāra. It is based generally upon the Pratāparudrīya. Our author also wrote a commentary, also called Alamkārendu-śekhara, on some Kārikās on Poetics entitled Lakṣaṇamālikā¹.

54. NARAHARI SŪRI

Rasa-nirūpaņa

This work and the author are mentioned by Kumāra-svāmin at p. 224.

55. NARENDRAPRABHA SÜRI (Maladhāri)

Alamkāra-mahodadhi

(Ed. L. B. Gandhi, Gaekwad Orient. Series, Baroda 1942)

The author was a pupil of Naracandra of Harşapurīya-gaccha. The work was composed at the request of Vastupāla (d. 1242 A.D.) in whose honour he wrote three Praśastis. It consists of eight chapters and deals with (i) Kāvya-phalādi (ii) Śabda-vaicitrya (iii) Dhvani including Rasa (iv) Guṇībhūta-vyaṅgya (v) Doṣa (vi) Guṇa (viii) Sabdālaṃkāra and (viii) Arthālaṃkāra. The work is stated to have been composed in Samvat 1282 (=1225-26 A.D.).2

- 1 See Madras Cat. xxii 12955, extract; SgS i, 98-99 extract, also p. 11. V. Raghavan (New Cat. Cat. i p. 300) thinks that probably "the basic text of the Lakşaṇa-mālikā is also by Nṛsiṃha himself."
- 2 The Alanıkāra-candrīkā of Nārāyana Deva referred to by himself in his Samgīta-nārāyana (ABod 201) is not a work on Rhetoric but deals with the subject of musical Alamkāras. The author, also called Gajapati Vīranārāyana-deva, was son of Padmanābha and disciple of Puruşottama Miśra. Similarly, the Kāma-samūha of Ananta, son of Mandana and grandson of Nārāyana (composed in 1457 A.D.), is really an anthology of erotic verses; see P. K. Gode in JOR, Madras, xiv, pp. 74-81. The Śrāgārālāpa of Rāma, of which a MS is dated 1556 A.D., is a similar work (see P. K. Gode in Journal of Bom. Univ. xv (N.S.), pt. 2, 1946, pp. \$1-88.

56. NĀRĀYAŅA

Kāvya-vṛtti-ratnāvalī (Tanjore Cat. ix, no 5173)

The work is in nine Prakaraņas. Its avowed object is to deal with Kavi-svarūpa, Kāvya-lakṣaṇa, Rasa-svarūpa and general principles of poetry.

57. NĀRĀYAŅA

Sabda-bheda-nirūpaņa

The work deals with the three Vṛttis of word (Abhidhā etc). The author refers to śāha Mahārāja whose protégé he was (=Shahaji, king of Tanjore 1686-1710). There is another work of Lakṣaṇa-kavi, called Śāharājīya (Tanjore Cat. ix, no. 5304), the illustrations of which eulogise this prince. See above p. 270, no. 15. Several works called Śaba-bheda-nirūpaṇa are found in Tanjore Cat. ix, no 5301-3.

58. PADMASUNDARA

(Akabara-śāhī) Śṛṅgāra-darpaṇa

(Ed. Anup Skt. Series, Bikaner 1943)

The author was a Jaina monk of Akbar's time. The work is in four Ullasas, but it is a rehashing of Rudrabhatta's Sringarasilaka. The illustrative verses are addressed to the Mughal emperor Akbar. MS (Bikaner 9356) is dated 1569 A.D. See paper on the work by V. Raghavan in C. Kunhan Raja Presentation Vol.

59. PUNJARĀJA

- a. Dhvani-pradīpa (Aufrecht i. 273b)
- b. Kāvyālamkāra-śiśu-prabodha or Siśu-prabodhālamkāra (Aufrecht i. 103a)

self were ministers of Khalaci Śāhi Gayāsa; and Jīvana had two sons Puñja and Muñja. 'Puñja became king, but abandoning his kingdom to his younger brother, devoted himself to study, and wrote some works¹. The colophon ² to Puñjarāja's Sārasvata-tīkā on Sārasvata-prakriyā says: śrīmāla-kūla-śrīmālabhāraśrī-puñjarāja°, on which Bhandarkar remarks tha Puñjarāja was the ornament of the Mālava circle³. Aufrech thinks that the patron of Puñja's father and uncle was Ghiyas Shah Khalji of Mālava (about 1475 A.D.) and that Puñjarāja must have lived between 1475 and 1520 A. D. or at the end of the 15th and beginning of the 16th century.

60. PUNDARĪKA

Nāţaka-lakşana (Aufrecht i. 284b; SCB 308)

61. PUŅDARĪKA (or PAUŅDARĪKA) RĀMEŚVARA

Rasa-sindhu (Aufrecht iii. 106a)

The work consists of fourteen chapters called Ratnas. It quotes Darpaṇa (of Viśvanātha) and Rasa-taraṅgiṇī of Bhānudatta; hence later than 1500 A.D. For its date see P. K. Gode in Calcutta Orient. Journal ii, pp. 30-32, dating the work at about the beginning of the 15th century.

62. PURUSOTTAMA SUDHINDRA

Kavitāvatāra (Aufrecht i. 87a)

The work, in ten chapters (called Vihāras), is dedicated to one Nāgabhūpāla, whom its illustrative verses panegyrise. A Purusottama is cited by Viśvanātha ifi his Sāhitya-darpaņa, see above p. 214, fn 6.

- 1 Peterson Report v, pp. xliii, 166-69.
- 2 Peterson Report v, p. 169; AFl 181.
- 3 Rep. 1882-83, p. 12; cf also the colophon to his Sisu-prabodha quoted in op. cit p. 199. See P. K. Gode, Studies in Ind. Literary Criticism, i, pp. 68-72 on Puñiarāja's date.

63. PRAKĀŚVARSA

Rasārņavālamkāra

The text in Roman transliteration was published by V. Venkataram Sarma with an account of the work in IHQ v. 1929, pp. 173f. The Madras MS gives the work in five chapters, the first four of which deal with Doşa, Guṇa and Alaṃkāra, the last (incomplete) with Rasa. It is possible that the whole of ch. v (now lost) dealt with Ubhayālaṃkāras and the major part of ch. vi (now recovered incomplete) with Rasa. See the question discussed by S. K. De in IHQ v. 770-780 and by V. Raghavan in JOR viii, 1934, pp. 267-276. The work is later than Bhoja whose works are extensively utilişed. See also on this work S. P. Bhattacharya in JOI. Baroda, vii, 1957, nos. 1-2 and ix, 1959, pp. 5-16.

64. PRABHĀKARA BHAŢŢA

a. Rasa-pradipa

(Ed. Narayan Sastri Khiste, Sarasvati Bhavana Text, Benares 1925. MSS: Weber 823; SCC vii 42, extract in both)

b. Alamkāra-rahasya, cited in his Rasa-pradīpa, pp. 8, 9, 10, 13, 15, 20, 37, 38, 39, 40, 51.

The author was son of Mādhava Bhaṭṭa and grandson of Rāmeśvara Bhaṭṭa, and younger brother of Raghunātha and Viśvanātha, the last of whom he calls his 'vidyā-guru'. The Rasa-pradīpa was composed in Samvat 1640=1583 A.D. at the age of nineteen (Weber loc. cit.)¹. Prabhākara was thus born in 1564 A.D. His Laghu-saptašatika-stotra, an epitome of the Devī-māhātmya was written in 1629 A.D. He belongs, therefore, to the last quarter of the 16th and first quarter of the 17th century. The Rasa-pradīpa consists of three chapters (called ālokas) dealing with (1) kāvya-lakṣaṇa (2)-

¹ The date given in SCC vii, no. 42 is Samvat 1170=1114 A.D: but this must be a mistake.

rasa-viveka (3) vyañjanā-nirūpaṇa. The author cites Śrīharṣa Miśra, Miśra Rucinātha, Dharmadatta, Locanakāra (Abhinavapguta), Pradīpakṛt, Sāhityadarpaṇa-kāra. The Dharmadatta may be the same as quoted by Viśvanātha in his Sāhityadarpaṇa. Ananta in his commentary on Āryā-saptaśatī quotes a Rucinātha Miśra as a writer on Poetics. For Prabhākara's other works, see Aufrecht i. 353b. On citations in Rasapradīpa see S. K. De in IHQ viii, 1932, p. 358.

65. BALADEVA

Śṛṅgāra-hāra

(Kielhorn, Rep. 1880-81, p. 71=BORI MS Cat. xii, no. 295, p. 351)

The author is described as son of Keśava. MS is dated in Samvat 1845 (=1789-90 A D.).

66. BALADEVA VIDYĀBHŪŞAŅA

Kāvya-kaustubha

(Ed. Haridas Das, Navadvip, Bengal, 1957)

This work consists of nine prabhās and deals respectively with (1) Kāvya-phalādi (2) Śabdārtha-vṛtti (3) Rasa (4) Guṇa (5) Rīti (6) Doṣa (7) Dhvani-bheda (8) Madhyama-kāvya and (9) Śabdārthālaṃkāra. See above pp. 171-72 under commentators on Mammaṭa.

67. BĀLAKŖŅA BHATTA

Alamkāra-sāra (Aufrecht i. 32b)

The work consists of ten chapters. Bālakṛṣṇa Bhaṭṭa, styled Tighara, was son of Govardhana Bhaṭṭa and belonged to the Vallabha Sampradāya. A work of this name is cited by Jayaratha (pp. 88, 97, 171, 172, 184); also in Bühler's Catalogue 1871-73. The Alaṃkāra-sāra quotes Kuvalayānanda and Citra-mīmāṃsā; and the Deccan College MS of the work (no. 23 of 1881-82) appears to have been copied in Saṃvat

1758 (=1702 A.D.). We can, therefore, assign it to a period between 1625 and 1700 A.D.

The ten Ullāsas of the work have the following topics respectively: (i) Kāvya-prayojana-kāraņa-svarūpa (ii) Sabda-nirņaya (iii) Artha-nirņaya (iv) Dhvani-nirņaya (v) Guņī-bhūta-vyangya-nirņaya (vi) Sabdārtha-nirņaya (vii) Doşa (viii) Guņa (ix) Sabdālaṃkāra and (x) Arthālaṃkāra.

68. BHĀVA MIŚRA OT MIŚRA BHĀVA

Śṛṅgāra-sarasī

(SCC vii 43, extract)

The author of this treatise on amorous sentiments is described as son of Miśra Bhataka.

69. BHĀŞYKĀRĀCĀRYA (or ? BHĀSKARĀCĀRYA)

Sāhitya-kallolinī

(Madras Cat. xxii, 12964, extract)

The author is described as a descendant of Varadaguru of Śrīvatsa-gotra, and a resident of Bhūtapurī or Śrīpərumbūdūr. The verses are taken copiously from several well-known rhetorical works, e.g. Mammaṭa, the Bhāva-prakāśa etc. The author states his indebtedness to the Rasārṇava-sudhākara of Śiṅga-bhūpāla; hence he sould be placed later than the middle of the 14th century. The topics dealt with are prabandha-bheda, nāṭya-nṛtta-nṛtya, vastu, saṃdhi nāyaka-lakṣaṇa, rūpaka, uparūpaka and kāvya-lakṣaṇa.

70. BHĪMASENA DĪKSITA

- a. Alamkāra-sāroddhāra
- b. Alamkāra-sāra-sthiti or Kuvalayānanda-khaņdana, see above p. 225 under Appayya Dīksita.

He refers to both these works in his Sudhā-sāgara commentary on Mammața (see p. 171). Date between 1650-1725 A.D.

71. BHIMESVARA BHATTA

Rasa-sarvasva (Burnell 57a).
The author was son of Ranga Bhatta.

72. BHŪDEVA ŚUKLA

Rasa-vilāsa

(Ed. Prem Lata Sarma, Poona 1952)

The author, son of Sukadeva of Jambusara in Gujarat, flourished between 1660 and 1720 A.D.¹ For his other works, see Aufrecht i. 414b and introd. to above ed. p. xii. The India Office MS of the present work (no. 1209/2526b) contains only three stabakas and the beginning of a fourth. Our author is the same as Bhūdeva Sukla who wrote the drama *Dharmavijaya* in five Acts.

The Rasa-vilāsa consists of seven chapters, called Stabakas. The topics dealt with are as follow, according to chapters: 1-2 Rasa, counted as nine including Sānta. 3 Bhava. 4 Guṇa. 5-6 Doṣa. 7 Vṛtti (Abhidhā, Lakṣaṇā and Vyañjanā). As its editor rightly says it is a mediocre manual on Rasa and allied topics, which derives its material chiefly from Mammaţa and Jagannātha and shows little originality.

73. MĀNASIMHA

Sāhitya-sāra (Aufrecht i. 716a)

74. MOHANADĀSA

Rasodadhi

The work is cited by himself in his commentary on the

- 1 P. K. Gode, however, in ABORI xiii, p. 183, thinks that the Rasavilāsa was composed about 1550 A.D. As the Rasavilāsa refers to the definition of poetry given by Rasa-gangādhara, it could not have been composed earlier than 1660 A.D.
- 2 Ed. Granthamālā iii, 1889; also ed. Narayan Sastri Khiste, Sarasvati Bhavana Texts, Benares 1930. See Mitra i, p. 37; Weber 1561; *IOC* vii, p. 1596.

Mahānāţaka (ABod 143a). The author was son of Kamalāpati.

75. YAJÑANĀRĀYAŅA DĪKŞITA

Alamkāra-ratnākara (Tanjore Cat. ix, no. 5131)
Sāhitya-ratnākara (ed. T. R. Chintamani,
Madras 1932)

The author was son of Govinda Dīkṣita, minister of Raghunātha Nāyaka of Tanjore who ruled between 1614 and 1633 A.D. Almost all the verses of the first work eulogise Raghunātha. The second work is really a Kāvya in sixteen cantos, dealing with the exploits of the same prince. Both the works form a companion to the author's Raghunāthābhyudaya. K. Kunjunni Raja (Contribution of Kerala, p. 134) is not correct in identifying him with Yajñeśvara Dīkṣita mentioned below.

76. YAJNEŚVARA DĪKŞITA

Alamkāra-rāghava (Tanjore Cat. 5132-33)
Alamkāra-sūryodava (Tanjore Cat. 5140-41)

The author was son of Cerukūri Kondubhatta and brother of Tirumala Yajvan.² The first work quotes Rasārṇavasudhākara of Śinga-bhūpāla and Sāhitya-cintāmaṇi (apparently of Vīranārāyaṇa, q.v.); hence later than the 15th century (c. 1600 A.D). The work is so called from the circumstance that the illustrative verses refer to Rāma. The author may be identical with Yajñeśvara already mentioned as a commentator on Mammata (see p. 175). He may have been related to Lakṣmīdhara (q.v.) who also came from Cerukūri.

¹ So also in Tanjore ix, 1933, no. 5132. The Alamkara-ratnakara ascribed Yajñanārāyaņa (no. 5131), also eulogises Raghunātha Nāyaka, the poet's patron. Yajñeśvara and Yajñanārāyaņa appear to be different persons.

² See \$g\$ ii, p. 65.

77. YAŚASVIN KAVI

Sāhitya-kautūhala and its commentary Ujjvalapadā (Aufrecht i. 715b, ii. 171a)

The author is described as son of Gopāla and Kāśī. The India Office MS (Cat. iii, p. 337) was copied in 1730 A.D.; it contains only the first chapter which deals with enigmatology and Citra-kāvya. There is another Sāhitya-kutūhala of Raghunātha, a protégé of queen Dīpābai of Tanjore (between 1675-1712 A.D.). also on Citra-kāvya (see Journal Bomb. Univ. x, p. 132f).

78. RATNABHŪŞAŅA

Kāvya-kaumudī (HPS ii, no. 35, extract)

This work in ten paricchedas is apparently a very modern composition by a Vaidya Pandit of East Bengal. It deals with (1) năma. (2) lingādi. (3) dhātu-pratyaya. (4) kāvya-lakṣaṇa (5) dhvani. (6) guṇībhūta-vyangya. (7) guṇa. (8) and (9) alaṃkāra. and (10) doṣa, the first three chapters being devoted to grammar. The date saka 1781 (=1859 A.D.) may be the date of its composition (HPS ibid, preface p. viii).

79. RAGHUNĀTHA MANOHARA

Kavi-kaustubha

P. K. Gode (*Poona Orientalist* vii, 1943, pp. 157-64) places this work between 1675 and 1700 A.D.

80. RĀGHAVA-CAITANYA

Kavi-kalpalatā (Aufrecht i. 87a)

Possibly the poet of the same name cited in the Paddhati as Rāghavacaitanya Śrīcaraṇa (71, 168, 877, 1557-8), which title apparently indicates that he was a well-known Vaiṣṇava. In the colophon to the codex containing Deveśvara's Kavikalpalatā in SCC vii, no. 7 (cf. ABod 211b), the reading is māgha-caitanya-viracita-kavi-kalpalatāyāḥ etc. This may be

a corruption of or mistake for the name Raghavacaitanya, whose work may have got mixed up with that of Devesvara himself.

81. RĀJACŪDĀMAŅI DĪKŞI I

a. Kāvya darpaņa

(Ed. S. Subrahmanya Sastri, Vani Vilasa Press, Srirangam (no date). MSS: Madras Cat. xxii, 12809-814, with the commentary of Ravi-pandita)

b. Alamkāra-cūdāmaņi

Mentioned in his Kāvya-darpaņa (Madras Cat. xxii. 12809) or Alamkāra-siromaņi (Hultzsch i. extract p 86)

The author, who is a well-known and prolific South Indian author, was son of Satyamangala Ratnakheta Śrīnivāsa Dīkşita and Kāmākşī, and step-brother of Keśava Dīkşita and Śeşādriśekhara Dikşita. He was grandson of Bhavasvamin and Laksmī and great-grandson of Kṛṣṇabhatta Dīkṣita, and pupil of Ardhanārīśvara Dīksita who was his brother (Hultzsch ii, p. x). The date of composition of his Tantra-śikhāmani, a work on Mīmāmsā, is stated to be 1636 A.D. He was, thus, a contemporary of Nilakantha Diksita, whose Nilakanthavijaya Campū was also composed in 1636 A.D., and belonged to the first half of the 17th century. In his poem Rukminikalyāna (in ten cantos) he states that he composed it when Raghunātha, son of Acyuta, was ruling at Tanjore; and his two dramas Ananda-raghava and Kamalini-kalahamsa were staged in the court of the same prince. His genealogy and a long list of his other works are given in the concluding verses of his Kāvya-darpana¹ and in his drama Ānandarāghava². The Kāvya-darpaņa in ten ullāsas covers generally all the topics of Poetics, while his other work deals specially with the poetic figures. The ten Ullasas of the Kavya-darpana

¹ Extract in Madras Cat. xxii no. 12809 and Hultzsch i, pp. 85-6.

² Madras Cat. xiii, no. 12495. The Kāvya-darpaņa mentions 26-works of the author.

deal with (i) Kāvya-svarūpa (ii) Sabdārtha (iii) Vyangārtha (iv-vi) Kāvya-bheda (vii) Doşa (viii) Guṇa (ix) Sabdālaṃkāra and (x) Arthālaṃkāra. The family to which Rājacūḍamaṇi belonged was known as atirātra-yājin. Šrīnivāsa Atirātrayājin in Aufrecht i. 672a is identical with Rājacūḍāmaṇi's father. He lived in Surasamudra in Toṇḍīra (i.e. in the region of Kāñcī). Cf Sten Konow, Ind. Drama p. 94. For a list of his other works see Hultzsch i, pp. ix-x, and introd, to the Vanivilasa Press ed. of Kamalinī-kalahaṃsa. His Saṃkarā-bhyudaya has also been published by Vanivilasa Press, Srirangam.

82. RĀMACANDRA and GUNACANDRA

Nātya dārpaņa

(Ed. G. K. Srigondekar and L. B. Gandhi in 2 vols. Gaekwad Oriental Ser. Baroda vol. i 1929. Ed. based on a single MS; Peterson v, p. 188)

A work of this name, but probably not identical, is cited by Ranganātha on Vikramorvasīya and Bharatamallika on Bhaṭṭi. The present work is in four vivekas, dealing with Dramaturgy, and mentions twelve varieties of Rūpaka and a number of Uparūpakas. The author Rāmacandra was the one-eyed pupil of Jaina Hemacandra¹ of whom Guṇacandra was also a pupil. He thus flourished between 1100 and 1175 A.D. He also wrote two dramatic works respectivly called Raghu-vilāsa² or Raghu-vilāpa³ where he mentions four other works by himself, as well as Satya-hariścandra (ed. B. R. Arte, Nir. Sag. Press, Bombay 1898) which gives a curious Jaina version of the Hariścandra legend. Rāmacandra is said to have been the author of a hundred works (prabandha-śata-kāra): and no less

¹ Peterson, Report iv, pp. 16-7; Bühler's Hemacandra p. 44. The present work was first brought to notice by Sylvain Lévi in JA, cciii, 1923. P. K. Gode (Studies, i, pp. 36-42) places the work at 1150-1170 A.D.

² Peterson Report v. 145.

³ Bühler Kashmir Rep. p. xlix.

than eleven of his dramatic works are quoted in the Nātya-darpaņa.

83. RĀMACANDRA NYĀYAVĀGĪŠA

Kāvya-candrikā or Alamkāra-candrikā (Aufrecht i. 101a, 778b), with commentary called Alamkāra-mañjūşā

(ed. Comilla 1885; ed. Dacca 1886 with commentary of Jagabandhu Tarkavagisa; ed. Venkatesvara Press, Bombay 1912, with commentary Alamkāra-mañjūṣā by Rāmacandra Śarman who may be the author himself)

A Bengal writer described as son of Vidyānidhi. Is he identical with Nyāyavāgīśa Bhaṭṭācārya, author of the Kāvya-mañjarī commentary on the Kuvalayānanda (see above p. 229)?

84. RĀMA ŚARMAN or RĀMA KAVI

Nāyikā-varņana in 42 stanzas (Madras Cat. xxii, no. 12901).

85. RĀMA SUBRAHMANYA

Alamkāra-śāstra-samgraha (Hultzsch 1562) or Alamkāra-śāstra-vilāsa (Madras Trm II C 1802, 1805; extract)

The author, also called Rāmasubbā, belonged to Tiruvisaiore. He seems to be a very recent author, who appears to have also written some philosophical works noticed in the Catalogues cited above.

86. RĀMA SUDHĪ or SUDHĪŠVARA

Alamkāra-muktāvalī

(Ed. with Ratna-śobhākara comm. of Kṛṣṇa Sūri in Telugu script, Vizagapatam 18-7-98)

The author was son of Nṛṣiṃha.

87. LAKŞMIDHARA DİKŞITA

- a. Alamkāra-muktāvalī (Aufrecht i. 32a)¹
- b. Rasa-manjarī, cited by himself in his commentary on the Gīta-govinda
- c. Bharata-śāstra-grantha (BORI MS no. 40 1916-18)²

The author was son of Yajñeśvara and Sarvāmbikā (or Ambikāmbā), grandson of Timmaya Somayājin, and brother and pupil of Kondubhatta. He belonged to the Kāśyapa Gotra and bore the surname of Daksinamurti-kimkara. His family came from Cerukūri on the Kṛṣṇā river (in Andhra country) which place Hultzsch thinks to be identical with modern Peddacerukūru near Bāpatla. He is identical with Lakşmīdhara, author of the Prakrit grammar Sadbhāsā-candrikā. He also wrote commentaries on the Anargha-rāghava, Prasanna-rāghava and Gīta-govinda. In the first of these commentaries it is said that after having led the life of a householder for a long time, he travelled to different countries and conquered all literary opponents, and then having renounced the cares of the world he became a samnyāsin or yati with the name Rāmānanda or Rāmānandāsrama, under a Guru called Krsnāśrama. Laksmīdhara (who is also sometimes called Lakşmanabhatta or Lakşmana Sūri) was patronised by Tirumalarāja, probably Tirumala I of the third Vijayanagar dynasty, to whom his Sruti-ranjani commentary on Jayadeva's

- 1 V. Raghavan (New Catalogus Cat. i, p. 296) queries whether this work is really the Alamk. muktāvalī of Viśveśvara (q.v.), son of Lakşmīdhara, and refers to ABORI, xviii, 1937, p. 200.
- 2 See P. K. Gode ABORI xv, 1953, p. 240-42. Mentions Bharatārṇava and Kavi-kaṇṭha-pāśa. The Kavi-kaṇṭha-pāśa (Madras Cat. xxii, no. 12802), said to be based on some work of Pingala's, gives miscellaneous information about a poet's personal appearance, qualities etc. (cf. Rāja-śekhara, Kav. Mīm. ch. x); the name of the author is not known. See above under Gauranārya, p. 278.
 - 3 El iii p. 238 Table. He died in 1572 A.D.

Gīta-govinda is sometimes attributed¹. As the prince flourished in the middle of the 16th century, Lakşmīdhara's date would be the same².

88. VALLABHA BHATTA

Alamkāra-kaumudī (ed. Granthamālā ii, 1889)

A short treatise of very recent times, dealing with poetic figures, the illustrations being in praise of Rāma.

89. VIŢŢHALEŚVARA or VIŢŢHALA DĪKŞITA

Rīti-vṛtti-lakṣaṇa (Kielhorn, Central Prov. Cat. p. 104)

The author, also called Agnikumāra, was the second son of Vallabhācārya the famous religious reformer, and brother of Gopīnātha, and father of seven sons, Giridhara, Raghunātha and others. He was born in 1515 A.D. For his other works, see Aufrecht i. 572ab, 135a, 225a, iii. 121a. His Śrngāra-rasa-manḍana (ed. Mulchand Tulsidas Telivala, with a Gujarati trs. Bombay 1919) in ten Ullāsas is not a work on Śrngāra Rasa, but an erotico-religious poem on Rādhā-Kṛṣṇa modelled obviously on Jayadeva's Gīta-govinda and introducing songs in rhythmic rhymed metres.

90. VIDYĀRĀMA

Rasa-dīrghikā

(Peterson iii. no. 336; for a description of this work and extracts see *BORI MS Cat.* xii, no. 210, p. 240. MS incomplete)

Nothing is known of the author, but the work in five Sopānas was composed in Samvat 1706 = 1649-50 A. D.). It names $Kavi-kalpalat\bar{a}$ as one of the sources.

- 1 See Hultzsch 2112; SgS ii, pp. 203-5. See also SgS ii, pp. 63-5, 67; Hultzsch iii, pp. viii-ix.
- 2 See K. P. Trivedi, introd. to his ed. of the Şaḍ-bhāṣā-candrikā (Bombay Skt. Ser. 1916) pp. 14-17. P. K. Gode (ABORI, xv, pp. 240-42) would place him in the 3rd quarter of the 16th century.

91. VIŠVANĀTHA

Sāhitya-sudhā-sindhu (Ulwar Catalogue, extract 235; also Jammu Cat. no. 1254)

This South Indian author, who wrote in Benares, was son of Trimala or Trimalla Deva and grandson of Ananta of Dhārāsura city on the Godāvarī. Stein's Kashmirian MS¹ is dated in 1602 A.D.² He quotes at the beginning of his work from Mammaṭa and Bhoja, and elsewhere cites Caṇḍīdāsa (probably the same as the commentator on Mammaṭa) and Mahimabhaṭṭa. The work is in eight taraṅgas. Viśvanātha also wrote a drama called Mṛgūṅka-lekhā³, a MS of which is dated Saṃvat 1664 (=1608 A.D.).

92. VIŚVANĀTHA NYĀYA-(or SIDDHĀNTA-) PAÑCĀNANA

Alaṃkāra-pariṣkāra

This work is mentioned under Viśvanātha Nyāya-pañcānana in S. C. Vidyabhushana's Indian Logic p. 479 (also p. 392). The author was son of Vidyānivāsa Bhaṭṭācārya and a brother of Rudra Vācaspati. He composed his well known Vaiśeṣika treatise Bhāṣā-pariccheda in 1634 A.D. and also wrote a Piṅgala-prakāśikā. He was a native of Navadvipa (Bengal) and an adherent of the Navya Nyāya school of Raghunātha Śiromaṇi. See H. P. Sastri in JASB vi. 1910, p. 313.

- 1 Jammu Cat. p. xxix.
- 2 Stein speaks of a MS "transcribed from an autograph copy of the author. In the colophon referring to this original copy, which is added by another hand at the end of the Jammu MS, the date samual 1659 (=A.D. 1602) can be made out with difficulty."
- 3 Sten Konow, Ind. Drama p. 113. The work has been published in the Sarasvati Bhavana Text Series, Benares.

93. VIŠVEŠVARA KAVICANDRA

Camatkāra-candrikā

(IOC vii, p. 1507; Madras Trm Cat. 1916-19, 1918-19, R 2679)

The author, a protégé of Śinga-bhūpāla (1330 A. D.) wrote this work in eight Vilasas or chapters on principles of rhetoric. the illustrative verses being in praise of the author's patron (simhabhūpāla-kīrti-sudhā-sāra-śitalā). He gives seven elements of Camatkara in poetry, and the names of the chapters will sufficiently illustrate its scope. They are as follow: (i) Varna, Pada and Pada-dosas (ii) Vākya and Vākya-dosas (iii) Artha and Artha-doşas; varieties of composition (iv) Gunas; Rīti, Vrtti, Pāka and Śayyā (v) Rasa (vi) Śabdālamkāras (vii) Arthālamkāras and (viii) Ubhayālamkāras. The work is noteworthy as one of the few Alamkara-treatises which generally follow Bhoja; but the author does not do so in respect of the treatment of Rasa, eight of which he accepts, dismissing Santa. Four Rītis are recognised, and called Asamāsā, Madhyamasamāsā, Atidīrgha-samāsā and Miśrā. He anticipates later writers in describing Rasa as Lokottarāhlāda, Anubhavaikavedya and Vigalita-vedyantara. It is perhaps the first work which makes an approach through Camatkara, on the basis of which poetry is classified into three groups: Camatkāri (Śabda-citra), °kāritara (Artha-citra and Gunībhūtavyangya) and °kāritama (Vyangya-pradhāna). For detailed information and estimate of the work see V. Raghavan, ABORI, xvi (1934-35), pp. 131-39.

94. VIŚVEŚVARA BHAŢŢA

a. Alamkāra-kaustubha

(with his own gloss, ed. Sivadatta and K.P. Parab, Nir. Sag. Press, Bombay 1898)

b. Alamkāra-muktāvalī (ed. Visnuprasad Bhandari, Chowkhamba Skt. Ser. Benares 1927)

- c. Alamkāra-(kula)-pradīpa (ed. Visnuprasad Bhandari, Chowkhamba Skt. Series, Benares 1923)
- d. Kavīndra-karņābharaņa (ed. in Kāvyamālā Gucchaka viii, 1891)
- e. Rasa-candrikā (ed. Visnuprasad Bhandari, Chow-khamba Skt. Series, Benares 1926)

The author was son of Laksmidhara. He was born in Almoda: hence he is called Parvatīva. He flourished in the first half of the 18th century and died about its middle at the age of 34. In the first work, the author refers to two dramas called Srngara-manjari (sattaka)2 p. 347 and Rukmini-parinaya pp. 381, 387 by himself; and the latest writers that he quotes appear to be Appayya Dīkşita and Jagannātha (both cited extensively). He cites also Mallinatha (p. 69) as a commentator on Dandin (see above p. 71), Candidasa (pp. 125, 166), Maheśvara (p. 49, 111) who is probably the commentator on Mammata, cited as Nyāyālamkāra (p. 82), as well as a work (p. 157) called Kāvya-dākinī³. The Nyāyapañcānana, so extensively (eleven times) quoted, is probably Jayarāma Nyāyapañcānana (q.v.), another commentator on Mammata. He gives the name of his elder brother as Umapati (p. 357). In this work he deals with 61 poetic figures. The second work of our author, as he himself says, was written as an easier and briefer manual for beginners, after his first more extensive work. The third work Alamkarapradīpa deals entirely with poetic figures, enumerated as 119 and defined with illustrations. The fourth work deals in four chapters with enigmatology and Citra-kāvya (58 varieties). The fifth work deals with the different classes of heroes and heroines, and their characteristics. Visvesvara was a scholiast of considerable activity and wrote a commentary called Vyangyārtha-kaumudī or Samanjasārthā on Bhānudatta's

¹ See Kāvyamālā, Gucchaka viii, pp. 51-52 fn.

² Also quoted in his Rasa-candrikā p. 90.

³ See above p. 276.

Rasa-mañjarī (see above p. 249). For his other works, see Aufrecht ii. 139b. The Kāvyamālā editors (Gucchaka viii, p. 52) mention two other works Kāvya-tilaka and Kāvya-ratna by Viśveśvara.

95. VIŞNUDĀSA

- a. Sisu-prabodha Alamkāra (AFI 469)
- b. Kavi-kautuka cited by himself in chapter vii of the above work

The author was son of Mādhava. The Florentine MS, referred to above, contains only chapters 6 and 7, which deal with artha-guņa and śabdālamkāra respectively.

96. VĪRA NĀRĀYAŅA

Sāhitya-cintāmaņi with a commentary (Madras Cat. xxii, 12265-68, extract)

According to the colophon, Vīra Nārāyaṇa is the author; but in the work itself he is in the vocative case and praised, as in the Pratāparudra. Vāmana Bhaṭṭa Bāṇa¹ is the real author of the work which bears the name of his patron. The alleged author seems to be the same as the Reḍḍi prince Vema of Koṇḍavīḍu (end of the 14th and beginning of the 15th century), the hero of the prose Vemabhūpāla-carita or Vīranārāyaṇa-carita of Vāmana (or Abhinava) Bhaṭṭa Bāṇa (ed. R. V. Krishnamachariar, Srivani-vilasa Press 1910). There is also a reference to Pedakomaṭi Vema-bhūpāla who is the same person. A commentary called Śṛṅgāra-dīpikā oṇ the Amaru-śataka is attributed to Vīranārāyaṇa (Aufrecht ii, 141b) or Vema-bhūpāla (ibid i, 609b). The Sāhitya-cintāmaṇi (also called °cūḍāmaṇi) consists of seven chapters² which deal

¹ For Vāmana Bhaţţa Bāṇa, see introd to the Vani Vilas ed. of his drama Pārvatī-pariṇaya.

² In the Tanjore Catalogue, ix, no. 5308, p. 4100 the work is described as having thirteen chapters.

with (1) dhvani (2) śabdārtha (3) dhvani-bheda (4) guṇībhūta-vyangya (5) doṣa (6) guṇa and (7) alaṃkāra. Possibly this is the work cited under the name Sāhitya-cintāmaṇī by Kumāra-svāmin (p. 97) and in the Vṛṭṭi-vārṭṭika (p. 4).

97. VĪREŠVARA PAŅDITA (BHAŢŢĀCĀRYA)

surnamed Śrīvara

Rasa-ratnāvalī (10C iii, 1233/12576, p. 359)

This Viresvara is the son of Laksmana and father of Venidatta, the last of whom, besides being the author of the Alamkāra-candrodaya, wrote a commentary on Bhānu's Rasaturanginī (see above p. 250). The present work quotes Rudrabhaṭṭa's Śrngāra-tilaka, and is limited chiefly to Śrngāra-rasa and treatment of the Nāyikās.

98. VECĀRĀMA NYĀYĀLAMKĀRA

Kāvya-ratnākara

The author was a Bengal writer, son of Rājārāma. He mentions this work in his Ānanda-taraṅgiṇā, which describes an itinerary from Chandernagar to Benares (Mitra 305). He also wrote a work on Jyotişa, and is probably identical with Vecārāma, who wrote a commentary on Devesvara's Kavikalpalatā (see above p. 262).

99. VENKAPAYYA PRADHĀNA

Alamkāra-maņi-darpaņa (Rice 280)

The author is known as Pradhāni Venkayāmātya of Mysore, ca. 1763-80 A.D.

100. VEŃKATA NĀRĀYAŅA DĪKŞITA

Śrngāra-sāra (Madras Cat. xxii, 12958-9, extract)

The author, son of Kāmeśvara Vaidika of the Godavarti family and Laksmī, refers in this work to his larger Spāgāra-

sārāvalī for fuller treatment. The present work consists of six ullāsas dealing with (1) kāvya-svarūpa (2) nāyaka-nāyikā-lakṣaṇa-vibhāga (3) nāyakādi-sahāya-nirūpaṇa (4) rasa-bhāva-svarūpa (5) catutvidha-śṛṅgāra (6) daśarūpaka-svarūpa. The author is said to have composed works in eight languages.

101. VENKAŢĀCĀRYA (also called Kirīţi Venkaţācārya) surnamed Tarkālaṃkāra Vāgīśvara

Alamkāra-kaustubha

(New Catalogus Catalogorum i, p. 292-93)

This writer, son of Annayārya Dīksita of Surapuram and of the Tirumala Bukkapaṭṭaṇam Śrīśaila family, should be distinguished from the poet Venkṭācārya (author of the Viśvaguṇādarśa) who was son of Raghunātha and grandson of Appayya. Our author was patronised by Venkaṭa, son of Pāmi Nāyaka (died in 1802 A.D.). See Journal of Andhra Hist. Res. Society xiii, i, pp. 17 and 20-22.

102. VEŅĪDATTA ŚARMAN, TARKAVĀGĪŚA BHAŢŢĀ-CĀRYA. surnamed Śrīvara

Alamkāra-candrodaya (IOC iii, 1198/235)

103. ŚANKHA, ŚANKHADHARA or ŚANKHACUDA (sometimes called ŚAMKARA), surnamed Kavirāja Kavi-karpaţi or Kavi-karpaţika-racanā

(Jammu Cat. no. 1135 (p, 267) extract; BOR! MS Cat. xii, nos. 42-46; extracts. Printed at Durbhanga 1892)

The word kavi-karpati means "the ragged cloth of a poet." and the work is a strange effort at supplying a profuse stock of expressions which may be of use in poetic compositions for ideas of frequent occurrence. Various ways of expressing one and the same thought are indicated to suit various metres. The author, who also wrote the Latakamelaka-prahasana (ed. Durgaprasad and K. P. Parab, Nir. Sag. Press, Bombay 1889), was court-poet of mahāmāndalikādhirāja Govindanrpati, king of Kanyakubia, and wrote in the first half of the 12th century (about 1113-1143 A.D.). His verses are quoted in the anthologies of Sarngadhara (nos. 155, 3632) and Jahlana, and in the Sahitya-darpana (ad iii. 219 p. 176, guror girah pañca, anonymously). The verse cited under Kārpatika in Ksemendra's Aucitya-vicāra (under śl. 15) is attributed to Mātrgupta by Kahlana (iii. 181) and in the Subhāsitāvali¹ (3181).

104. SAMBHUNĀTHA

Alamkāra-laksaņa

(Peterson v. 407; BORI Cat. xii, no. 19, p. 18)

105. ŠĀTAKARŅI

Cited as a writer on Dramaturgy (on Sūtra-dhāra) by Samkara in his commentary on Sakuntalā², and by Sāgara Nandin in his Nājaka-lakṣaṇa-ratna-kośa (on Sūtradhāra).

¹ See Peterson's paper on Aucitya-vicāra, 1885, p. 21. There is a Kavi-karpatikā of Vādīndra noticed in Tanjore Cat. vi, no. 3753-56 (pp. 2711-14); one of these MSS belonged king Seríoji who acquired it during his pilgrimage to Benares.

² ABod 135a. Mention is also made of an Kavi-kantha-hitra.

106. ŠIVARĀMA TRIPĀTHIN

- a. Rasa-ratna-hāra and its commentary Lakşmī-vihāra (ed. Kāvyamālā Gucchaka 6, 1890, pp. 118-140; Jammu Cat. p. 273 (extract)
- b. Alamkāra-samudgaka, cited at the end of his Rāvaņapuravadha, where he gives a list of his own 34 works. Stein p. 292.

For the author, son of Kṛṣṇarāma and grandson of Trilokacandra, and brother of Govindarama. Mukundarama and Keśavarāma, see JAOS xxiv 57-63. He appears to be a comparatively recent writer, quoting Paribhāşendu-śekhara, which alone will suffice to place him in the beginning of the 18th century. He is identical with the commentator on the Vāsavadattā (see Fitzedward Hall, Bibl. Ind. ed. 1859); for in this commentary he refers to his Rasa-ratna-hāra pp. 4, 9, 193, 206, 207. The present work, in 100 stanzas, deals with the characteristics of rasa and nāyaka-nāyikā, and quotes extensively Bhanudatta and Dasa-rūpaka. For his other works, see Aufrecht i. 652b, ii. 155b; also Stein, Jammu Cat. p. 292. He also appears to have written a commentary (Vişama-padī) on Mammata (see above, p. 176) and a work on metrics called Kāvya-laksmī-prakāsa or ovihāra, as well as a commentary on the Siddhanta-kaumudī, called Vidyā-vilāsa¹.

107. SOBHĀKARAMITRA

Alamkāra-ratnākara

(Ed. C. R. Devadhar, Poona 1942)

The author belonging to Kashmir was son of Trayiśvaramitra. The work is written in the form of Sūtra (107 in number), Vṛtti and illustrations. The poet Yaśaskara of Kashmir extracted the Sūtras from this work and wrote his *Devī-stotra* for the purpose of illustrating them (Peterson i. pp. 77-78; extract p. 81). Ratnakantha (q.v.) appears to have commented

¹ See P. K. Gode, Studies in Ind. List. Hist. ii, p. 237-41.

upon both the Sūtras and the Stotra. The date of Sobhākara is not known, but from the definitions and number of Alamkāras given, he appears to be a comparatively recent writer, considerably later than Ruyyaka whom he criticises. But as he is quoted by Jagannātha (p. $202=s\bar{u}tra$ 11)¹ and by Appayya (Vṛtti-vārttika, p. 20), he is earlier than the end of the 16th century. It appears, however, that Jayaratha in his Vimaršinī commentary defends Ruyyaka against Sobhākara's attacks. Coming after Ruyyaka and preceding Jayaratha Sobhākara probably belonged to the end of the 12th or beginning of the 13th century. The work deals entirely with poetic figures, the number of which is 109,

108. ŚRĪKANTHA

Rasa-kaumudī

(Aufrecht i. 494a=BORI MS no. 303 of 1880-81; Cat. xii, no. 347, p. 463f. Also H. P. Sastri, Cat. ASB MSS vi, no. 4931/8383, p. 481; the MS was copied in Samvat 1652=1596 A.D.

The work combines Sāhitya and Saṃgīta in ten chapters divided into two Khaṇḍas, Pūrva and Uttara. It was composed in 1575 A.D. The author was patronised by Satrughna or Satruśalya Jāma (Jam. Sattarsal) of Navanagar (1569 to 1608 A.D.).²

109. SRĪKARA MĪŠRA

Alamkāra-tilaka (Aufrecht i. 32a)

110. ŚRĪNIVĀSA DĪKŞITA

- a. Alamkāra-kaustubha (Aufrecht i. 31b)
- b. Kāvya-darpaņa (Rice 282)
- 1 See above p. 235 (under Jagannātha).
- 2 P. K. Gode in *ABORI* xii, 1931, p. 202-4; also xiv, 1933, p. 329 see *MSS Cat. BORI*, xii, pp. 463-66.

- c, Kāvya-sāra-saṃgraha (Aufrecht i. 102b; SCC vii 19)
- d. Sāhitya-sūksma-saraņi (Rice 244)

This author may be identical with Ratnakheta Śrīnivāsa, father of Rājacūḍāmaṇi Dīkṣita (q.v.). If this were so, then the Kāvya-darpaṇa above is the work of his son bearing the same title (see above p. 296), mistakenly entered here in most catalogues. As the first verse of the third work shows, it is three parts: (1) kāvya-lakṣaṇa-saṃgraha (2) varṇa-saṃgraha and (2) subhāṣita-saṃgraha. It quotes the Kāvya-prakāśa. About 1800 A.D.

111. SĀGARA NANDIN

Nāţaka-lakşaṇa-ratna-kośa

(Ed. Myles Dillon, Oxford Univ. Press 1937)

The work is published from Devanāgarī transcript of a unique MS discovered by Sylvain Lévi in Nepal.¹ As its name signifies, the work brings together a number of views of different notable writers on important dramaturgic topics. Its date² is uncertain; but as it cites from Rājašekhara's Kāvyamīmāmsā (p. 44, vilāsa-vinyāsa-kramo) it cannot be earlier than the first quarter of the 10th century. On the other hand, it is known to Rāyamukuṭa (1431 A.D.), Viśvanātha (between 1300 and 1350) and Bahurūpa Miśra (later than 1250 A.D.). The topics dealt with are: 1. Rūpaka and its ten varieties. 2-5. Five Avasthās, dialects to be employed, five Artha-prakṛtis. 6-10. Five Upakṣepakas, five Saṃdhis, 21 Pradeśas of Saṃdhi, four Patākāsthāna, Vṛttis and their division. 11. Excellences of the Nāyaka. 12-13. Thirty-six Nāṭya-lakṣaṇas, ten Guṇas,

¹ S. Lévi in JA, xciii, 1923, p. 210f.

² For a discussion of date see P. K. Gode in ABORI, xix, 1938, pp. 280-88 (Studies, i. pp. 48-56); M. Ramkrishna Kavi in NIA ii, p. 412-19. For textual study see V. Raghavan in Journal of the Univ. of Gauhati iii, 1952, pp. 17-33 and Annals of Orient. Research, Madras Univ., xvi, 1958-59.

thirty-four Nāţyālaṃkāras. 14-16. Rasas and Bhāvas. 17. Types of Nāyikā and their excellences. 18. Minor forms of Rūpaka. The work is important not only for its collection of various views on these topics, but also for its citation of a large number of dramatic and dramaturgic works.¹

112. SĀMARĀJA DĪKŞITA

Śṛṅgārāmṛta-laharī

(ed. Kāvyamāla Gucchaka xiv. MSS: Jammu Cat. no. 1243; Madras Cat. xxii, 12961)

The author, also called Syamaraja, was son of Narahari Bindupurandara, and wrote also Tripura-sundari-manasapūjana-stotra (ed. Kāvyamālā Gucchaka ix) and other poems. He lived in Mathura at the latter part of the 17th century. His son Kāmarāja, whose Śrngāra-kalikā-kāvya is published in Kāvyamālā Gucchaka xiv, as well as a Prahasana named Dhūrta-nartaka was also a poet; while his grandson Vrajarāja and his great-grandson Jīvarāja wrote commentaries on the Rasa-mañjari and Rasa-tarangini of Bhanudatta respectively (q.v.). The present work deals with Rasa, especially Srngara, after Bhānudatta. Our author wrote his drama Śrīdāma-carita in 1681 A.D. for the Bundela-prince Anandaraya. His son Kāmarāja also appears to have written a Kāvyendu-prakāša in 15 Ullasas (Kalas), which is apparently the same work as entered anonymously in Bhandarkar, Rep. 1887-91, no. 601 and in BORI MSS Cat. xii, no. 142, pp. 158-60, which see for information about this work.

Sāmarāja, who wrote Rati-kallolinī in 1719.A.D. but who does not give his parentage, is probably a different person.

- 1 For an index of authors and titles, see ed. as above pp. 145-47 and P. K. Gode as cited above p. 485 fn. As authors on Nāṭya-šāstra are mentioned Aśmakuṭṭa (lines 83, 437, 2766, 2775), Cārāyaṇa (1. 392; also mentioned in Vāṭsyāyana's Kāma-sūtra i. 1.12; i. 5. 22), and Bādara.
 - Wilson ii. 407; Keith, Sanskrit Drama, pp. 262-63.
 - 3 See P. K. Gode in ABORI x, pp. 158-59.

113. SĀYAŅA

Alamkāra-sudhā**nidh**i

Cited by Appayya Dikşıta and Kumārasvāmin; see above p. 225 fn 3.

114. SUKHADEVA MIŚRA

Śṛṅgāra-latā (Aufrecht i. 661a)

A bhāṣā-work, called Rasārṇarva, by Sukhadeva is mentioned in Peterson iv, no. 770 (App. p. 29).

115. SUKHALĀLA

Alamkāra-mañjarī (AFl 213)

The author, pupil of Gangesa Misra and his son Hariprasāda (q.v.), professes to follow the Kārikās of Jayadeva. Aufrecht thinks that he must have flourished about 1740 A.D. The work begins with upamā and takes up rūpaka, parināma, smṛtimat, bhrāntimat, saṃdeha, utprekṣā, where the MS breaks off. A Kāvya called Śṛṅgāra-mālā, composed in Saṃvat 1801=1745 A.D. by Sukhalāla, son of Bābūrāya Misra, is entered in Stein 75 and Ulwar Cat. no. 1083 (extract 230).

116. SUDHĀKARA PUŅŅARĪKA YĀJIN

Śṛṅgāra-sārodadhi (Aufrecht iii 137b)

117. SUDHĪNDRA YOGIN or YATI

Alamkāra-nikaşa

(Madras Cat, xxii, 12976, extract)

Alamkāra mañjarī with commentary, Madhu-dhāra by Sumatīndra

(*Tanjore Cat.* ix, 5129-30)

The Alamkāra-nikaşa is a short work on Arthālamkāra. The colophon gives the author's name as above; but in the work it is said that the author, following the views of ancient and

modern authorities on the subject, deals with and illustrates the Arthalamkaras by means of examples eulogising the virtues of Sudhindra Yati himself who is made out to be a follower of the Madhva sect. He is probably the same as Sudhindra Yati, disciple and successor of Vijayindra Yati (d. 1623 A. D.). The Alamkara-nikarsa by Sudhendra in Oppert 4797 is probably this work. The Alamkara-manjari appears to be separate work by Sudhindra Yati in which the illustrative verses are in praise of the teacher Vijayindra. Most of the MSS contain the Sabdalamkaras only. There is a commentary on this work called Madhu-dhārā by Sumatīndra, a successor of Sudhindra. We are told that Sudhindra was living in the Tanjore district in the 17th century. A drama called Subhadrā-parinaya is attributed to Sudhīndra Yatı in Madras Cat. xxi no. 12729 and a drama called Subhadrādhanañjaya to Vijayindra Yati in ibid no. 12728.

118. SUNDARA MIŠRA AUJĀGARI

Nātya-pradīpa (Aufrecht i. 284b, 791a)

The work is dated in 1613 A.D. It is cited by Rāghavabhaţţa on Śakuntalā (ed. N.S.P. 1886, p. 6). This work repeats verbatim a large portion of the Daśa-rūpaka (see pref. to Hall's ed.). In the work itself the Sāhitya-darpaṇa is referred to. The author is the same as Sundara Miśra who wrote the Abhirāmamaṇi-nāṭaka in seven acts in 1599 A.D. which is mentioned as his own (ABod 137b-138a; Kielhorn Central Prov. p. 68; Wilson ii p. 395). See IOC iii, pp. 347-48, no. 1199/1148d (extract).

119. SOMANĀRYA

Nātya-cūdāmaņi

(Madras Cat. xxii 12998, with a Telugu commentary)
This is a very recent work on dancing and music¹. The

1 See V. Raghavan on Later Samgita Literature in the Journal of Madras Music Acad. iv.

author is described as one famous for assavadhana (attention to eight things at a time).

120. HARIDĀSA

Prastāva-ratnākara

(Weber 827; Aufrecht i 360a, ii 212a iii 77a)

The author was son of Purusottama of the Karana family, and the work is a metrical compilation dealing with kūţa, samasyā and enigmatic composition in general, as well as with miscellaneous subjects including Nīti. Jyotişa etc. It was compiled in 1557 A.D.

121. HARIPRASĀDA MĀTHURA

a. Kāvyārtha-gumpha
(Aufrecht ii. 20b; BORI MS Cat. xii, no. 131, p. 145, the MS is dated Samvat 1775)

b. Kāvyāloka

(Aufrechti. 103a, extract in Petersoniii p. 356-7)

The second work in seven prakāšas is dated in Samvat .734=1728 A.D. A MS of the first work bears the date 1775 which is possibly the date also of its composition. Hariprasāda is also author of a work on ācāra (māsādi-nirūpaṇa), see Peterson iv, p. cxxxvii. A Kāvyāloka is cited by Appayya in his Citra-mīmāṇsā; but this must have been an earlier work. The Kāvyāloka cited by Kumārasvāmin p. 73 refers the Dhvanyāloka (p. 221), and is not, as supposed by Harichand Sastri (p. 27, no. 234) a reference to the present work. The author was son of Māthura Miśra Gangeśa (see above under Sukhalāl).

122. HARIHARA

- a. Śrngāra-bheda-pradīpa (Burnell 59a)
- b. Bindvalamkāra, cited in Ekāvalī p. 242 (on Dīpaka)

One Harihara is referred to in the Ekāvalī p. 19 as having received amazing wealth from king Arjuna, who is supposed

by Bhandarkar and Trivedi (see above p. 206) to be identical with Arjunavarman of Mālava, whose earliest and latest known dates are 1211 and 1216 A.D. If this Harihara be our author, then his date will be the first quarter of the 13th century. The Śrńgāra-bheda° deals, among other topics, with the ten Avasthās of Vipralambha Śrńgāra, as we know from a passage which is quoted by Viśveśvara in his Rasa-candrikā (p. 55).

123. HALADHARA RATHA

Kāvya-tattva-vicāra

(H. P. Sastri's Report, 1895-1900, p. 16).

ANONYMOUS WORKS

We give below a list of some minor works on Alamkara, of which the names of the authors are unknown or uncertain:

- 1. Alamkāra-kārikā. Aufrecht i. 31b.
- 2. Alaṃkāra-kaumudī-vyākhyā. Madras Cat. xxii, 12784. Neither the name of the author of the original treatise nor that of the commentary is given. It treats of poetic figures.
 - 3. Alamkāra-candrikā. Rice 284 (Aufrecht i. 32).
- 4. Alamkāra darpaņa in Prakrit. consisting of 134 Ślokas devoted to the treatment of poetic figures. Monatsber. Berl. Akad. 1874, 282.
 - 5. Alamkāra-prakarana. SgS i, no. 52.
- 6. Alamkāra-prakāsikā. Madras Cat. xxii, 12791. It deals with poetic figures and quotes from the Kāvya-prakāsa.
 - 7. Alamkāra-mayūkha. Oppert 1754 (Aufrecht i. 32).
- 8. Alamkāra-vādārtha. Sabda-bheda discussion, starting with the Sāhitya-darpaņa. HPS i, 12.
- 9. Alamkāra-samgraha. Madras Cat. xxii, 12795. It enumerates and classifies the various poetic figures.
- 10. Alamkāra-sarvasva. Madras Cat. xxii, 12798 (MS. incomplete). The author says that his teacher composed a work on Alamkāra in praise of king Gopāladeva. It is a treatise on the general topics of Alamkāra, but the MS is incomplete, breaking off with the Guṇa-prakaraṇa. It appears to be a recast of Pratāparudrīya. For the uncertain name of the author see V. Raghavan, New Cat. Cat. i, 2976; Number of Rasas p. 50, also note in Addendum.
- 11. Alamkārānukramaņikā. Oppert 5489 (Aufrecht i. 32b).

- 12. Alamkāresvara, cited by Sivarāma on Vāsavadattā p. 4.
- 13. Kavi-kantha-pāśa. See above p. 278. 299 fn. Madras Cat. xxii, 12802-03.
 - 14. Kavi-kalpalatikā. Burnell 54a.
- 15. Kavi-saraņa-dīpikā. A work on poetic composition by one Ratneśvara. H. P. Sastri, Cat. ASB MSS. vi. no. 4915A/8069, pp. 471-73.
 - 16. Kāvya-kalāpa. Aufrecht i. 100b.
 - 17. Kāvya-kaustubha. Oppert ii. 3616 (Aufrecht i. 101a).
- 18. Kāvya-dīpikā, Oppert 541, 636; Madras Cat. xxii. 12815. A compilation for beginners. Probably the same as Kānticandra's Kāvya-dīpikā (see below).
 - 19. Kāvya-pariccheda, Oppert ii. 8727.
 - 20. Kāvya-ratna. Oppert ii. 6237. See above p. 220.
- 21. Kāvya-lakşaṇa. Madras Cat. xxii, 12829. It is based on the Kārikās of Kāvya-prakāśa, but adds a section on dramaturgy (cf. Oppert i. 1793 and ii. 6238).
- 22. Kāvya-lakşaṇa-vicāra. Madras Cat. xxii, 12979. A comparatively modern work on the general topics of Alamkāra, citing the Citra-mīmāṃsā and the Rasa-gaṇgādhara.
 - 23. Kāvyāmīta-tarangiņī. See above p. 177.
- 24. Kāvyopadeša, cited by Hemādri on Raghu (Aufrecht i. 103a).
- 25. Daśarūpaka-vivaraṇa. Madras Cat. xxii, 12892, This work is not a commentary on the Daśa-rūpaka, but a short treatise, mostly in the nature of a compilation, explaining the characteristics of dramatic composition. It may have formed the Nāṭaka-section of some comprehensive work on Poetics. It refers to Daśa-rūpaka by name.
- 26. Nāţaka-ratna-kośa, cited by Rāyamukuţa and Bhānujī. ABod 182b. This may be the Nāṭaka-lakṣaṇa-ratnakośa of Sāgara Nandin, see above p. 310.
- 27. Nāļakāvatāra, mentioned by Mohanadāsa (q.v.). ABod 142a.

- 28. Nāṭya-darpaṇa, cited by Ranganātha on Vikramor-vasīya (ed. N.S.P. 1914, p. 7) and Bharatamallika on Bhaṭṭi xiv. 3. See p. 297, no. 82 above.
- 29. Nāṭya-sarvasva-dīpikā. BORI MS no. 41 of 1916-18. (Cat. xii, no. 344, p. 453). Purports to be a comm. on the so-called Ādibharata in 5 Skandhas, 32 Adhyāyas and 221 Prakaraṇas, of which a fragment is found in a Mysore MS named Ādibharata. For an account of this MS and the work see S. K. De. The Problem of Bharata and Ādi-Bharata in Some Problems of Skt. Poetics, Calcutta 1959, pp. 156-76.
- 30. Rasa-kalikā, cited by Vāsudeva on Karpūra-mañjarī (Aufrecht i 494a) For a Rasa-kalikā by Rudrabhaţţa see V, Raghavan Number of Rasas, p. 53f. This work is found in two MSS in the Govt. Orient. Library, Madras (nos. R. 2241 and 3274). It is identical with the work cited by Vāsudeva, for all the six verses quoted by him are found in it.
- 31. Rasa-kaumudī, Peterson v, no. 414. P. K. Gode (Cal. Oriental Journal iii, pp. 35-37) gives the latter half of the 18th century A. D. as the probable date of this anonymous work.
 - 32. Rasa-gandha. Rice 286 (Aufrecht i. 494b).
- 33. Rasa-gāndhāra. Aufrecht i. 494b (may be a mistake for Rasa-gangādhara of Jagannātha),
- 34. Rasa-ratnākara, cited by Mallinātha on Kirāta ix. 71 and on Meghadūta (ed. Nandargikar, 1894, pp. 64, 67. 85, 91). Aufrecht. i. 496a (commentary by Hṛdayarāma Miśra).
- 35. Rasa-ratna-kośa, anonymous, is mentioned in Aufrecht i. 495b; but it may be Kumbha's work of the same name (see p. 271-72).
- 36. Rasa-bindu and Rasāmṛta-sindhu, Kathvate no. 703 and 707; BORI MS Cat xii, no. 212, pp. 245-46.
- 37. Rasa-viveka. Madras. Trm C 589. (Cf Oppert 5144).
 - 38. Rasa-samuccaya. Aufrecht i. 496b.
 - 39. Rasa-sāgara, cited by Mallinātha on Siśu xv. 89.
 - 40. Rasa-sudhākara, cited by Mallinātha on Raghu vi. 12.

It is Rasārņava-sudhākara of Śinga-bhūpāla which Mallinātha cites in his com. on Kumāra. For this work see above p. 239.

- 41. Rasākara, cited by Mallinātha on Megha-dūta (ed. ibid, p. 87, 97).
- 42. Rasika-sarvasva, cited by Nārāyaṇa on Gīta-govinda v. 2; also by Rucipati in his comm. on Anargha-rāghava (NSP ed.) p. 13.
- 43. Rahasya, probably an abbreviation of some more definite title, cited by Mallinatha on Kirāta iii. 60, xiv. 40, on Sisu xiii. 10.
 - 44. Sringāra-kaustubha. Rice 288 (Aufrecht i. 660b).
- 45. Śrngāra-candrodaya, cited in Prastāva-cintāmaņi. Weber i. p. 229.
- 46. Śringāra-tarangiņī. Oppert 2465; Rice 288 (= Aufrecht i. 660b).
 - 47. Śrngāra-pavana. Oppert 5766 (Aufrecht i. 661a),
 - 48. Śrngāra-manjarī. Aufrecht i. 661a.
 - 49. Srngāra-vidhi. Oppert 5680 (Aufrecht i. 661a).
 - 50. Śrngāra-ratnākara, Aufrecht ii. 158a.

It is not always clear, from the citations or descriptions in the catalogues, whether some of the works on Rasa and stragara noted here are really works on Poetics or partake of the nature of erotic Kāvya. But care has been taken to exclude the latter wherever possible.

Among recent publications (in Sanskrit) on Poetics, produced late in the 19th century, may be mentioned:

- (1) Alamkāra-sūtra by Candrakānta Tarkālamkāra, a Bengal Pandit who lived within living memory. (Publ. Calcutta 1899).
- (2) Yaśovanta-yaśo-bhūşaṇa by Pandit Rāmakarṇa in praise of a native prince of Rajaputana of that name. (Publ. Godhapur 1897).
- (3) Alamkāra-maņi-hāra by Śrīkṛṣṇa Brahmacārin, published in Mysore Govt. Oriental Series in 4 vols, nos. 51, 85, 68, 72. The author is called Kṛṣṇabṛahmatantra Parakāla-

svāmin, a recent pontiff of the Parakāla Śrīvaisnava Math in Mysore.

- (4) Kāvya-dīpikā of Kānticandra Mukhopādhyāya Vidyāratna (ed. Calcutta 1870, 1886, with a comm. by Jivananda Vidyasagar 1919; ed. Haridatta Sastri, Lahore 1939, with Skt. and Hindi commentary). It is a compilation for beginners from Mammata and other authors by a modern writer belonging to the 19th century.
- (5) Alamkāra-sāra-mañjarī with Skt. text and Hindi comm. by Narayan Sastri Khiste, ed. Narahari Sastri Thatte, Chowkhamba Skt. Series 1933.

CONCLUSION

(1)

An attempt has been made in the foregoing pages not only to indicate the diversity as well as immensity of Sanskrit Alamkāra literature, but also to settle its relative chronology as a workable basis for an historical treatment. If we leave aside its unknown beginnings and Bharata, the historic period of its growth covers broadly a thousand years from 800 to 1800 A.D. It is marked by a speculative activity, surprising alike for its magnitude and its minuteness. This activity in its early stage centres in Kashmir, to which place belong most of the famous and original writers on Poetics. We do not indeed know the place of origin of the two earliest writers. Bharata and Bhāmaha, but immediately after them we find Anandavardhana. Vamana, Udbhata, Rudrata, Mukula, Lollața, Bhațța Nāyaka, Abhinavagupta, Kşemendra, Kuntaka, Mammata and Ruyyaka flourishing in Kashmir. The only important exception is found in Dandin who was probably a South Indian writer. Coming to later times we find the study extending itself to Central India, Gujarat, the Dekkan and Bengal. In South India, no doubt. this study was kept alive by a succession of brilliant, if not very original, writers; but these contributions of later times, though greater in bulk and sometimes superior in a certain acuteness, never supersede the volume of original work done in Kashmir, which may be fittingly regarded as the home-land, if not the birthplace, of the Alamkāra-śāstra. The writers of Central India, Gujarat, the Dekkan and Bengal only carry on the tradition, as well as acknowledge the authority, of the Kashmirian originators of the discipline.

(2)

Although our history covers a period of more than a thousand years, it is yet marked by several well-defined stages.

With the date of Anandavardhana, we arrive for the first time at a distinct landmark in its chronology as well as its history; and we may take it as the central point from which we may proceed backward and forward, although the system of Anandavardhana itself was raised to almost exclusive recognition by the classical work of Mammata. The mutual relation of this system to the other systems flourishing before and after Anandavardhana furnishes the best and safest criterion for the orientation of the divergent streams of thoughts and tendencies, which gather together in one clear, dominant and finally authoritative doctrine in Mammata. Indeed, one of the obvious objects of Anandavardhana's work was not only to fix the new principle of Dhvani in poetry, but also to work up and rationalise into a synthetic and comprehensive system the already accumulated ideas, elaborated by previous thinkers but flowing through different channels in the respective systems of Bhāmaha, Vāmana and the post-Bharata dramaturgic Rasa-writers; while Mammata gathered the results up and uttered them in the convenient and concise form of a systematic text-book.

(3)

Although in Bhāmaha's Kāvyālaṃkāra, the earliest known work on Poetics, we meet for the first time with a more or less systematic scheme of Poetics, there is enough evidence to show that it must have been preceded by a period, covering perhaps several centuries, of unknown beginnings. All that we know of this period consists of glimpses of rhetorical speculations, such as we find in Bharata, in the recorded opinions of (or stray references to) pre-Bhāmaha writers like Medhāvin, or in such treatises on Alaṃkāra as was presumably utilised by the Kāvya-poets in general and by Bhaṭṭi in particular. This period begins with the enumeration and definition of only four poetic figures, ten Guṇas and ten Doṣas, but ends with the elaborate characterisation of thirty-eight independent figures in Bhaṭṭi. But what is important to note

in this period is Bharata's more or less elaborate exposition of Dramaturgy, and incidentally of Rasa, which element however, is considered not in relation to Poetry and Poetics, but in connexion with Drama and Dramaturgy.

This is followed by a comparatively brief but important period of extraordinary fertility and creative genius, beginning with Bhamaha and ending with Anandavardhana, in which we find most of the fundamental problems of Sanskrit Poetics discussed and settled in their general outlines. We have, on the one hand, Bhāmaha, Udbhata and Rudrata, devoting themselves to the consideration of those decorative devices of poetic expression which are known as Alamkaras (poetic figures). and confining themselves chiefly to an external art or theory of adornment, from which the discipline itself takes its name and its original tradition. Dandin and Vamana, on the other hand, emphasise in poetry the objective beauty of representation realised by means of what they call Marga or Riti (roughly 'diction') and its constituent excellences, the ten Gunas. Both these systems, which emphasise respectively the elements of Alamkara and Rīti in poetry, content themselves with the working out of the outward forms of expression, the advantages of which were considered sufficient for poetry. They point out the faults to be avoided and the excellences to be attained, and describe the poetical embellishments which should enhance its beauty, insomuch so that the whole discipline came to receive the significant designation of Alamkāra-śāstra or the Science of Poetical Embellishment.

Side by side with these early writers, however, we have the commentators on Bharata (like Lollata, Sankuka and others) who were bringing into prominence the aesthetic importance of Rasa, the consideration of the moods, sentiments and feelings, which we find reacting upon and influencing even the theorists of rival persuasion (e.g. Dandin, Udbhata, Vāmana and Rudrata) who betray themselves more and more alive to the significance of this element in poetry.

But the discussion of Rasa appears to have been, so far, confined chiefly to the sphere of the dramatic art, and its bearings on poetry were not fully realised until the Dhyanikāra and Ānandavardhana had come into the field.

These new theorists, headed by Anandavardhana, maintain that no system of Poetics, like no system of Dramaturgy, can entirely ignore the moods, feelings and sentiments as essential factors in poetry, and must therefore find an important place for Rasa in its scheme. What was thus already established in the drama was taken over and applied to poetry, profoundly modifying, as it did, the entire conception of the Kāvya. The Rasa came to be considered as the "essence" (ātman) of poetry; and in order to harmonise it in poetic theory, the new school evolved a theory of "suggestion" (dhvani) as the means of its expression. Not satisfied, however, with working up the concept of Rasa into their system, the new theorists devoted themselves to the examination of the already accumulated ideas of Alamkara and Rīti (with its constituent Guna and Dosa), with a view to correlate them to the new idea of Dhvani (and Rasa), and thus by synthesis evolve a comprehensive theory of Poetics.

The interval between Anandavardhana and Mammata was taken up in settling precisely the details of the new system, which was raised to almost exclusive recognition by the final text-book of Mammata. Its success was so complete that the new concept of Dhvani was unquestionably accepted by most later writers, and the systems which emerged after Mammata could no longer be strictly regarded as entirely independent systems.

(4)

But a new theory, however systematic or comprehensive, is never accepted without some opposition. Anandavardhana's system, no doubt, absorbed and overshadowed in course of time all the earlier systems; but in the interval between Anandavardhana and Mammata, while it was still

striving for supremacy, we find a few vigorous but short-lived reactionary movements which refused to accept Anandavardhana's new interpretation. Thus, we have Kuntaka who strove to make Bhāmaha's concept of Vakrokti elaborate and comprehensive enough to include the new ideas; Bhatta Nāyaka who raised his voice on behalf of the Rasa-systems against their acceptance; and Mahimabhatta who attempted to settle the new concept of Dhvani with the technical process of logical inference. All these writers, however, do not deny the newly established doctrine of Dhvani, but they try to explain it in terms of already recognised ideas. In spite of these nonconformist schools, however, whose feeble opposition languished for want of support even in the time of Mammata, the system of Poetics, as finally outlined by Anandavardhana and worked out in detail by Mammata and his followers, was established without question in almost all writings from the 12th century downwards. Here and there we have some surviving exponents of some old tradition, like the Vāgbhatas or the followers of Bhoja, as well as specialised departments which stood apart like the group of Kavi-śikṣāwriters or the erotic Rasa-writers; but in the main. the creative days of the science were over, and no new theory forthcoming, the system of Anandavardhana, as represented by Mammata, reigned supreme, even influencing, to an obvious extent, the writers who would pretend to stand apart.

(5)

These considerations, which will become clearer as we proceed in our study of details in the next volume of this work will enable us to fix the rough outlines of the history of Sanskrit Poetics and divide it, for convenience of treatment, into several periods in conformity to chronology and the stages of development through which its doctrines passed. The dim beginnings of the discipline, like the beginnings of most other departments of Indian speculation, are hidden from us, until it issues forth in the works of Bharata and

Bhāmaha in a more or less self-conscious form. Then starts a period, ending with Anandavardhana, which may be characterised as the most creative stage in its history, a stage in which the dogmas and doctrines of the different systems were formulated and settled in their general outlines, giving us at least four different systems which emphasise respectively the theories of Rasa, of Alamkara, of Rīti and of Dhvani in poetry. To this period belong Bhamaha, Udbhata and Rudrata, Dandin and Vāmana, the commentators on Bharata (Lollata, Sankuka and others), the Visnu-dharmottara and Agni-purāna, and lastly, the Dhvanikara and Anandavardhana. Between Anandavardhana and Mammata, we have a third definitive period which ends with the ultimate standardisation of a complete scheme of Poetics, with the Dhvani-theory in its centre, in which the divergent gleams of earlier speculations are harmonised into a focus, and which finds itself finally set forth in a well-defined and precise form in the text-book To this period also belong reactionary of Mammata. theorists, like Kuntaka and Mahimabhatta, as well as Bhoja who carries on the same tradition as that of the Agni-purana, and Dhananjaya who writes on Dramaturgy. The period which follows this is necessarily a scholastic period of critical elaboration, the chief work of which consists in summarising setting forth in a systematic form (generally after and Mammata) the results of the final speculations, and also in indulging in fine distinctions and hair-splitting refinements on minute questions. This stage, therefore, is marked by great scholastic acumen, if not by remarkable originality or creative genius; but at the same time it denotes a progressive deterioration of the study itself. The branching-off of some specialised and practical groups of writers from the main stem is to be explained as due rather to this degenerate spirit of the times than to any real split in the domain of poetic theory or to any desire for independent thinking. It is also the age of numberless commentators, and of commentators on commentators. who busied themselves with the

hardly inspiring task of explanation, of expansion or restriction of the already established rules. We have also now a number of popular writers who wanted to simplify the study for general enlightenment, the lowest stage being reached when we come to the manuals and school-books of quite recent times.

(6)

We may, therefore, conclude here by broadly indicating he bearings of the chronological results of this volume on our enquiry in general, in the light of which (as well as in the light of what follows in the next volume) we may tentatively put torward a rough division of the different periods of our history, noting the different groups of writers comprised in them, with a view to facilitate the study of the problems which will confront us in the next volume:

- I. From unknown Beginnings to Bhāmaha. (Formative Stage).
- II. From Bhāmaha to Ānandavardhana. Circa middle of the 7th to the middle of the 9th century. (Creative Stage).
 - (1) Bhāmaha, Udbhaţa and Rudraţa (alamkāra-theory).
 - (2) Dandin and Vāmana (rīti-theory).
 - (3) Lollața, Sankuka, Bhațța Nāyaka and others (rasa-theory).
 - (4) The Visnu-dharmottara and Agni-purāna.
 - (5) The Dhvanikāra and Ānandavardhana (dhvanitheory).
- III. From Anandavardhana to Mammata. Circa middle of the 9th to the middle of the 11th century. (Definitive Stage).
 - (1) Abhinavagupta
 - (2) Kuntaka
 - (3) Rudrabhațța
 - (4) Dhanañjaya and Dhanika

- (5) Bhoja
- (6) Mahimabhatta
- IV. From Mammața to Jagannātha. Circa middle of the 11th to the 18th century. (Scholastic Stage),
 - (1) Mammaţa, Ruyyaka and Viśvanātha (including Hemacandra, Vidyādhara, Vidyānātha, Jayadeva, Appayya and others).
 - (2) The Vāgbhatas and Keśava Miśra.
 - (3) The writers on Rasa, especially Śṛṅgāra: Śāradātanaya, Śiṅga-bhūpāla, Bhānudatta, Rūpa Gosvāmin and others.
 - (4) The writers on Kavi-sikṣā: Rājasekhara, Kṣemendra, Arisimha and Amaracandra, Devesvara and others.
 - (5) Jagannātha.

(7)

Looking at the question from another point of view, we may classify the systems of Poetics broadly into (1) Predhvani (2) Dhvani and (3) post-Dhvani systems, taking Dhyani-theory as the central landmark. In the Pre-dhyani group, we include all writers (flourishing before Anandavardhana), mentioned in Groups I and II above, with the exception of the Dhvanikāra and Anandavardhana, with whose names the Dhvani-system is associated. In the Post-dhvani systems may be comprised the followers of the Dhvani-system from Mammata to Jagannatha, together with reactionary or unorthodox authors like Kuntaka or Mahimabhatta, as well as the writers on Srngara and on Kaviśikṣā. On the other hand, the systems of Poetics have been grouped, on the basis of the particular theory emphasised by a particular group of writers, into (1) the Rasa School (2) the Alamkara School (3) the Riti School and (4) the Dhyani School. The convenience of this classification is obvious, but it is doubtful whether we may safely apply the term "school" to indicate affiliation to a particular

system of opinion, when we consider that one has to admit a great deal of mutual and (to a certain extent) inevitable contamination of the different "schools", which makes the existence of any particular school by itself almost impossible. Thus, the "Dhvani School" admits Rasa and Alamkāra as important factors of poetry, which are thus not exclusively monopolised by the so-called Alamkāra and Rasa Schools. It is doubtful, again, if a Rasa School, properly so-called was at all founded by Bharata, who is taken as its original exponent, or a similar Alamkāra School by Bhāmaha. All that we can say is that Bharata and Bhāmaha laid stress on the elements of Rasa and Alamkāra which became in course of

1 Sovani in Bhandarkar Commemoration Volume pp. 387f. Reliance has been placed on Ruyyaka's review of previous opinions and Samudrabandha's classification. But Ruyyaka only takes the concept of dhvani or pratiyamana artha as the starting point and considers how far it was accepted, explicitly or implicitly, by his predecessors. Samudrabandha, commenting on this passage, speaks of five paksas or theses, including the dhvani-theory (which he calls the last pakşa) with which his author identifies himself. His classification is based upon the conventional theory that poetry consists of a "special" disposition of word and its sense (visista sabda and artha). This speciality, in his opinion, may be realised by putting emphasis on their (1) dharma (inherent characteristic) (2) vyāpāra (operation) and (3) vyangya (suggestiveness). In the first case, the dharma may proceed from alamkāra and guna (i.e. rīti). In the second case, the vyāpāra may consist of bhaniti-prakāra or bhogikaraņa. Thus, we get five standpoints associated respectively with the names of Udbhata, Vamana, Kuntaka, Bhatta Nayaka and Anandavardhana. This classification, though very significant, is obviously overlapping and historically incorrect. The vyañjanā, it may be objected, which is taken as one of the bases of differentiation, is admittedly as much a vyāpāra as bhaņiti postulated by Kuntaka. Besides, Kuntaka, as a matter of fact, developes Bhāmaha's idea of vakrokti as bhaniti-valcitrya and therefore may be properly included among those who put emphasis on alamkara. Similarly, Bhatta Nāyaka describes bhoga as a peculiar function (dharma) or process by which Rasa is said to be realised; and therefore he is in reality an exponent of the Rasa-theory as an interpreter of Bharata's dictum on Rasa.

time established ideas in the realm of Poetics. As a rule. each great writer who puts forward, consciously or unconsciously, a new theory, takes over from his predecessors those ideas which have stood the test of criticism and which he can combine in a self-consistent system of his own. In this way, really valuable ideas have been generally adopted, although sometimes other ideas, perhaps of the same author, have by common consent been rejected. This is illustrated by the case of the Vakrokti-jīvitakāra, whose theory of Vakrokti was universally rejected, although the main principle (analysis of an Alamkara) for which he was contending is accepted by Ruyyaka and others. It is not maintained here that the history of Sanskrit Poetics consists of only one stream of development, and that within it we have mere The latter were indeed currents and counter-currents. very important, but they never succeeded in forming into separate rivers: and the different channels originating independently or breaking away from the main course ultimately merge into one dominant and clear stream.

ABBREVIATIONS

- ABORI = Annals of the Bhandarkar Oriental Research Institute, Poona.
- Aufrecht=Th. Aufrecht's Catalogus Catalogorum i-iii. Leip-zig 1891-1903.
- ABod = Aufrecht's Catalogus Codicum Manuscriptorum Sanscriticorum Bibliothecae Bodleianae. Oxonii 1864.
- AFI=Aufrecht's Florentine Sanskrit MSS. Leipzig 1892.
- ALeip=Aufrecht's Katalog der Sanskrit-Handschriften der Universitäts-Bibliothek zu Leipzig. Leipzig 1901.
- Bendall=C. Bendall's Catalogue of Sanskrit MSS in the British Museum. London 1902.
- Bhandarkar. R. G. Bhandarkar's Reports on the search of Sanskrit MSS are quoted with reference to the particular years of operations, as indicated on the respective title-page of the Reports. Other lists by him are cited as in Aufrecht. Sridhar Bhandarkar's Reports and Catalogues are separately referred to.
- Bibl. Ind.=Bibliotheca Indica Series of Sanskrit publication.
- Bik, or Bikaner=Rajendralal Mitra's Catalogue of Sanskrit MSS in the Library of the Maharaja of Bikaner. Calcutta 1880.
- BORI Cat. MSS=P. K. Gode's Descriptive Catalogue of the Govt. Collections of MSS deposited at the Bhandarkar Oriental Research Institute. Volume xii deals with MSS of Alamkara and Natya.
- BSOS or BSOAS=Bulletin of the School of Oriental (and African) Studies.
- Br. Mus.=British Museum.
- BSS=Bombay Sanskrit Series. Ben. S. S.=Benares Sanskrit Series.
- Burnell or Tanjore Catalogue=Burnell': Classified Index to Sanskrit MSS in the Palace at Tanjore. London 1880.

Also P. P. S. Sastri's revised Catalogue of the same collection, esp. vol. ix which deals with Alamkara (1930). Srirangam 1928-31.

Comm.=Commentary.

Deccan Coll. Cat. = Sridhar Bhandarkar's Catalogue of MSS. deposited in the Deccan College. Bombay 1888.

Ed.=edition or edited.

EI=Epigraphia Indica.

F or f = f ollowing.

Fn=Footnote

GgA=Göttingische gelehrte Anzeigen.

GN=Nachrichten der Göttingischen Gesellschaft der Wissenschaften.

Hall Index=Hall's Contribution towards an Index to the Bibliography of the Indian Philosophical Systems. Calcutta 1859.

HPS or H. P. Sastri=Haraprasad Sastri's Notices of Sanskrit MSS. Second Series. i-iv. Also his Report 1895-1900. Also his Catalogue of Sanskrit MSS in the Asiatic Society of Bengal, vol. vi.

HSP=History of Sanskrit Poetics by P. V. Kane, prefixed to his ed. of the Sāhitya-darpaṇa, 3rd ed. Bombay 1951.

Hultzsch = E. Hultzsch's leports on Sanskrit MSS in Southern India. i, 1895; ii, 1896; iii, 1905. Madras 1895-1905.

1A=Indian Antiquary. 1HQ=Indian Historical Quarterly.

10C=J. Eggeling's Catalogue of Sanskrit MSS in the India Office Library. Part iii deals with works on Alamkara-London 1891.

JA=Journal Asiatique.

JAOS=Journal of the American Oriental Society.

JASB=Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal.

JRAS=Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society.

JBRAS=Journal of the Bombay Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society.

JDL=Journal of the Department of Letters. Calcutta University.

JOI=Journal of Oriental Institue, Baroda.

- JOR=Journal of Oriental Research, Madras.
- Kashmir Rep. = G. Bühler's Detailed Report of a Tour in search of Sanskrit MSS in Kashmir, Rajputana and Central India (Extra no. JBRAS 1877). Bombay 1877. As regards Bühler's other Reports and Lists, the references are as in Aufrecht.
- Kathavate=A. V. Kathavate's Report on the Search of Sanskrit MSS in the Bombay Presidency during 1891-95. Bombay 1901.
- Kāvyamālā = Kāvyamālā Series published by the Nirnay Sagar Press, Bombay.
- KBod=A. B. Keith's Catalogue of Sanskrit MSS in the Bodleian Library, Appendix to vol. i. Oxford 1909.
- Kielhorn, Rep. 1880-81=F. Kielhorn's Report on the search of Sanskrit MSS in the Bombay Presidency during the year 1880-81. Bombay 1881.
- Kielhorn, Central Prov. Cat.=Kielhorn's Classifie Alphabetical Catalogue of Sanskrit MSS in the Central Provinces.

 Nagpur 1874. Kielhorn's other reports and lists are cited as in Aufrecht.
- KM=Kāvyamālā publications in 14 Gucchakas, also referred to as Kāvyamālā in parts.
- Mudras Cat. = A Descriptive Catalogue of Sanskrit MSS in the Govt. Oriental MSS Library, Madras, by S. Kuppusvami Sastri Vol xxii (dealing with works on Alamkara). Madras 1918.
- Madras Trm A, B and C=A Triennial Catalogue of MSS, collected during the Triennium 1910-11 and 1912-13 for the Govt. Oriental MSS Library, Madras, by M. Rangacarya and S. Kuppusvami Sastri, Vol i (A, B, C). Madras 1913. Also vol. iv 1928; vol. v 1932 etc.
- Mitra=Rajendralal Mitra's Notices of Sanskrit MSS. i-x. Calcutta 1871-90.
- NSP or N.S.P.=Nirnay Sagar Press, Bombay, and its edition of Sanskrit works.
- Oppert=G. Oppert's Lists of Sanskrit MSS in the Private

- Libraries in Southern India. i, Madras 1880; ii, Madras 1885.
- Our Heritage = Journal of the Postgraduate Research Dept.

 Calcutta Sanskrit College.
- Peterson=P. Peterson's Reports on the search of Sanskrit MSS, as follow: i Detailed Report 1882-83; ii 1883-84; iii 1884-86; iv 1886-92; v 1892-95; vi 1895-97. Bombay 1883-99.
- Rep.=Report.
- Rice=L. Rice's Catalogue of Sanskrit MSS in Mysore and Coorg. Bangalore 1884.
- Raghavan, V=The Number of Rasas and Some Concepts of the Alamkara Sastra. Adyar Library, Madras 1940 and 1942.
- Regnaud=Regnaud's Rhétorique Sanskrite. Paris 1884.
- Sb. der Preuss. Akad = Sitzungsberichte der Königlich Preussischen Akademie der Wissenschaften.
- Sb. der Wiener Akad. = Sitzungsberichte der Wiener Akademie der Wissenschaften.
- SCB=Lists of Sanskrit, Jaina and Hindi MSS deposited in the Benares Sanskrit College, comprising collections 1897-1901, 1904-05, 1909-10, 1911-12, 1912-13, 1914-15. Allahabad, Separately published 1902-15.
- SCC=Descriptive Catalogue of Sanskrit MSS in the Calcutta Sanskrit College by Hrisikesa Sastri and Sivacandra Guin. Vol vii (dealing with Alamkāra works). Calcutta 1904.
- SgS=Sesagiri Sastri's Reports on the search of Sanskrit and Tamil MSS. Madras, i, 1898; ii, 1899.
- Sl = Sloka.
- Sten Konow = Sten Konow's Indische Drama (in the Grundriss Series), Berlin and Leipzig 1920.
- Stein or Jammu Cat.=M. A. Stein's Catalogue of Sanskrit MSS in the Raghunath Temple Library of the Maharaja of Jammu and Kashmir. Bombay 1894.
- Ulwar=P. Peterson's Catalogue of Sanskrit MSS in the Library of the Maharaja of Ulwar. Bombay 1892.

- WBod=Catalogue of Sanskrit MSS in the Bodleian Library vol. ii, begun by M. Winternitz and completed by Keith. Oxford 1905.
- Weber = A. Weber's Verzeichnis der Sanskrit und Prakrit Handschriften der Königl. Bibliothek zu Berlin. I, 1853; II, pt. i 1886, pt. ii 1888, pt. iii 1892. Berlin 1853-92.
- WRAS=Winternitz's Catalogue of South Indian Sanskrit MSS in the Royal Asiatic Society. London 1902.
- WZKM=Wiener Zeitschrift für die Kunde des Morgenlandes.
- ZDMG=Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenlandischen Gesellschaft.

Obvious abbreviations of texts referred to (e.g. $K\bar{a}v$. prak. = $K\bar{a}vya$ - $prak\bar{a}\acute{s}a$) are not given in this list; but the texts are often quoted only with the author's name, e.g. Daṇḍin = Daṇḍin's $K\bar{a}vy\bar{a}dar\acute{s}a$. Other Reports and Catalogues are cited as in Aufrecht.

ADDITIONS AND CORRECTIONS

- P. 4. Footnote 1, line 2. Read kanīyāmsam.
- P. 34. Footnote 1, lines 4 and 5. Read 151 (for 161) and 160 (for 16).
- P. 44. Bibliography. Line 4. Read ch. 1 (for ch. i), and line 8 read du (for de). Next page, line 1 read Sanskrite (for Sanscrit).
- P. 55. The last footnote should be numbered 4.
- P. 93. Footnote, line 8. Add after the paragraph: The verse is missing in ASB MS no. 4801/5456 (H. P. Sastri, Cat. vi, p. 395).
- P. 140. Line 2. Add: (6) Laghu-ţīkā by Harihara Miśra (H. P. Sastri, Cat. ASB MSS vi, no. 4808/4851, p. 399).
- P. 189. Line 21. Read gloss (for glass).
- P. 207. Line 7. Read Keli- (for Kali-).
- P. 233. Footnote 1. Lines 4 and 9. Read i (for ii).
- P. 259. Footnote 2. Add: Maladhāri Rājaśekhara Sūri, author of the *Prabandha-kośa*, was a śvetāmbara Jaina who became pontiff of the Harşapurīya-gaccha about 1350-54 A.D.
- P. 270. Paragraph 15. Read Kāšī (for KASHĪ).
- P. 274. Add after line 15: Kṛṣṇāvadhūta also wrote a drama called *Īhāmṛga* or Sarva-vinoda in four Acts dealing with Śṛṅgāra, Bībhatsa, Hāsya and Vairāgya.

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NB-1 here are numerous passing references to some of these works and authors, but the figures in the index indicate the places where they are dealt with or cited substantially.

CHAPTER I

FROM BEGINNINGS TO BHĀMAHA

(1)

Of the unknown beginnings of Poetics as a discipline, our enquiry in the preceding volume¹ has indicated that we can only make a few surmises, by implication, from the oldest surviving works on the subject, from stray references in general literature, from the elaboration of similar ideas in other disciplines, and from the fully developed Kāvya-style which would warrant the pre-existence of some doctrines of Poetics regulating its art and usage.

Apart from such surmises, the sixteenth chapter of Bharata's Nāṭya-śāstra gives us for the first time an outline of Poetics which is probably earlier in substance, if not in date, than the earliest existing Kāvya. In this chapter, one meets with a developed dogma, if not a theory, of Poetics which enumerates four poetic figures (alaṃkāras), ten excellences (giṇas), ten defects (doṣas), and thirty-six characteristics (lakṣaṇas) of poetic composition. These apparently constituted the principal contents of the discipline as it existed at a very early period; and this may be taken, in the absence of other data, as the first known period in the history of Sanskrit Poetics.

It is proper to note in this connexion that in the Nāţyaśāstra, Bharata is principally concerned with Dramaturgy and allied topics², and deals with Poetics in so far as it applies to the theme in hand. In later poetic theories, Dramaturgy is taken as a part of the discipline of Poetics, and the drama

¹ See vol. i, pp. 1-17.

² An outline of the different chapters of Bharata's Nātya-šāstra is given in Winternitz GIL iii, pp. 7f, and in Kane HSP, pp. vi-vii.

is accordingly considered to be a species of the Kävya. there are reasons to believe that in older times Dramaturgy and Poetics formed separate disciplines, the former being probably the earlier in point of time, as well as in substance. We have seen that the existence of naja-sūtras, which were presumably works in the sūtra-style on the histrionic art, was known even in the time of Panini: but there is no reference. direct or indirect, to such alamkara-satras, and indeed the term Alamkara itself in the technical sense was unknown in early literature. The earliest surviving works on Poetics. on the other hand, do not include a treatment of the theme of Dramaturgy which, having been a study by itself, was possibly excluded from the sphere of Poetics proper. Both Bhamaha and Dandin, no doubt, speak of najaka as a species of $k\bar{a}vva$, but they refer to specialised treatises for its detailed treatment⁴. Vaniana, the next important writer on Poetics, shows indeed an unusual partiality towards the drama (1, 3, 30-32), but even he did not think it proper to devote any special attention to it. Among later writers, it is not until we come to the time of Hemacandra, Vidyanatha Visvanatha, when the study was already entering upon a period of critical elaboration and summing-up of results. that we find special chapters dealing with the topic of Diamaturgy. Of these late writers, Vidyaratha and Visvanatha explicitly refer to and summarise the Dasa-rūpaka, a recognised work on the dramatic art, while the encyclopaedic Hemacandra, who professe great admiration for Bharata and his commentator Abhinavagupta, deals with the subject rather summirely, referring the reader to the standard works of Bhyrata and Kohala.

It seems, therefore, that the school of Dramaturgy had an existence separate from the orthodox school of Poetics.

^{31.} Bhām, Amrkāra i 24. The word anyatra in the comment is a referring in Bharata.

It is thus not surprising that Bharata should set apart, as he does, a chapter of his work for dealing with the ornaments of Poetry, so far they apply to the drama $(n\bar{a}tak\bar{a}sraya)$. In his discussion of the guṇas and doşas in their application to the drama, he expressly designates them as $k\bar{a}vya$ -guṇas and $k\bar{a}vya$ -doṣas (xvi. 92, 84) respectively; and with reference to the alaṇikāras he says $k\bar{a}vyasyaite$ hyalaṇikārāh (xvi. 41)⁵, making it clear at the same time that he considers them only as embellishments of the dramatic speech.

Bharata opens this chapter on Poetics with the discussion of what he calls the *lakṣaṇas* (lit. characteristics), which appear to be partly formal and partly material elements of poetry. Bharata mentions 36 of them and devotes a considerable part of this chapter to their definition; and the whole discipline appears to have received from them the designation of Kāvya-lakṣaṇa referred to in xvi. 17°. From his treatment it appears that he considers Lakṣanas to be of greater importance

- 5 Ed Kāvyamālā (NSP), ed GOS xvi. 41, but the Chowkhamba Skt Ser ed. xvii 42 reads the line differently. Our references in the following pages are throughout to the Kāvyamālā ed.—Cf also verses 104, 110. Bharata uses the word $k\bar{a}vya$ many times here, as in other chapters, to signify the drama, but we must bear in mind that his conception of poetry is dramatic and justifies such employment of the term $k\bar{a}vya$. But in this chapter he appears to imply a distinction between the $k\bar{a}vya$ and the $n\bar{a}taka$ as species of composition
- 6 The part of the text dealing with Laksanas and Gunas exists in two recensions, which we shall call here A and B Both the recensions are known to Abhinavagupta, but he follows the text of A on Laksanas, as it had been handed down to him through his teachers (asmadupādhyāya-paramparāgatah, p. 384). The editions of Kāvyamālā and Gaekwad's Series give this recension A, which consists of 39 veises starting with Upajāti and proceeding with Anustubh stanzas. The Brecension, found in Chowkhamba Skt. Ser. ed. (which also gives A in the footnote), consists of 42 stanzas all in Anustubh. A is followed by the Dasa-rūpaka, but B is accepted by Singa-bhūpāla and Visvanātha. Bhoja appears to know both the recensions, but he makes out 64 Laksanas, he is followed by Śāradātanaya.
 - 7 In Kāvyamālā and Gaekwad's ed, ed. Chowkhamba p. 204, st. 16.

than Alamkāras which are mentioned as just a few in number.

It is not very clear, however, from Bharata's treatment as to what position these Laksanas should occupy in a formal scheme of Poetics; but the function of most of these is assigned in later Poetics to Alamkaras or Gunas. Dandin mentions them summarily (ii. 366) under Alamkaras in the wider sense, along with samdhyanga and vrttyanga which belong properly to the drama, and refers to agamantara (interpreted by Tarunavacaspati as alluding to Bharata) for their treatment. So does Dhananjaya (ed. N. S. P. iv. 84): while Viśvanātha (ed. Durgaprasad, vi. 171-211, pp. 316-332) takes them in connexion with the drama, calling some of them nāt vālamkāra (dramatic embellishment), and is at the same time of opinion that although some of them are properly included under guna, alamkāra, bhāva and samdhi, they require a particular mention inasmuch as in the drama they are to be accomplished with some care (p. 332) literature the Laksanas, which linger conventionally Dramaturgy, entirely disappear from Poetics proper, Javadeva's Candrāloka being the only later work on Poetics which deals with them. This phenomenon would probably indicate not only that the Laksanas were regarded as strictly proper to the drama, but also the conclusion that what were, in the infancy of Poetics, considered so important as to deserve separate treatment and to be differentiated from the Gunas and the Alamkāras, were with the growth of critical insight assigned to the Gunas and Alamkaras themselves to whose sphere in ultimate analysis they were thought properly to belong.

- V. Raghavan has already given a detailed account of the
- 8 For instance, āśiḥ 15 one of the lakşanas of Bharata, Bhāmaha mentioning it rather doubtfully as an alamkāra with the remark: āśir api ca keṣāmcid alamkāratayā matā (iii. 54). In Dandin ii. 357 (as well as in Bhatti), it is already established as an Alamkāra. It is significant that Kuntaka finds fault with those who regard it as an Alamkāra.
- 9 Some Concepts of the Alamkara-sastra, Adyar Library 1942, pp. 1-47.

history of the concept of Laksana; but since the Laksanapaddhati perished very early, or lingered as a superfluous relic in the history of Poetics and Dramaturgy, it is not necessary for us to make more than a passing reference. Abhinavagupta, while explaining Bharata's text, mentions as many as ten different views concerning Laksana; but it appears that Laksana, otherwise called Bhūsana, is generally taken (on the analogy perhaps of Samudrika Laksana), to be an innate beautifying element belonging to the body of poetry, or rather as constituting the body itself. Although similar in function to the Alamkara in being a Kavya-sobhakara Dharma, it is not a separate entity, but Aprthak-siddha; that is to say, it imparts beauty to poetry by itself, and is not added, as an Alamkara is added, for extra beauty. It is obvious that the concept of Lakşana, even at its birth, had an overlapping of function with Alamkara, which in course of time swallowed it up. Even as a Nāṭaka-dharma, connected with dramatic Samdhyangas, it had little individuality, and the attitude of the Daśa-rūpaka in not considering it separately is significant. The main view, however, which takes Laksana, like Alamkara, as a brautifying characteristic, appears to have died out with Abhinavagupta's somewhat apologetic formulation.

From Lakşaņas Bharata goes on to the more interesting topic of kāvyālaṃkāras or poetic figures. It appears from his treatment that only four such poetic figures were known or recognised in his time, viz. upamā (simile), rūpaka (metaphor), dīpaka (lit. illuminator¹³) and yamaka (repetition

10 It is difficult to translate some of these terms, for there are no equivalents for them in European Rhetoric, and therefore attempts at such translation are as a general rule avoided here. The poetic figure dipaka may be generally explained as a figure in which two or more objects, some relevant and some irrelevant, having the same attributes, are associated together; or in which several attributes, some relevant and some irrelevant, are predicated of the same object. It is called dipaka or "illuminator" because it is like a lamp which, when employed for illuminating one object, illuminates others.

of words or syllables similar in sound). The Upamā is subdivided into four kinds, according as the object compared (upameya) or the standard of comparison (upamāna) is one or many¹¹, Bharata expressly making use of these technical terms. From another standpoint, five varieties of Upama are distinguished and illustrated, viz. (1) prasamsopamā (2) nindopamā (3) kalpitopamā (4) sadršī upamā and (5) kimcit-sadršī upamā¹², according as these qualifications apply upamāna. Bharata is apparently unaware of the finer shades of distinction (grammatical or otherwise) introduced later on into the treatment of Upama by Bhamaha, Dandin and Udbhata, or of its comprehensive definition given by Vāmana; but the very fact that the idea of comparison was even by this time analysed thus far shows a considerable amount of speculation on this point¹³. Bharata's first two kinds, however, are criticised by Bhāmaha (ii. 37), but accepted by Dandin without question (ii. 30-31); while the name, if not the idea, of the third kind lingers in Vamana iv. 2. 2. Of Rupaka and Dipaka¹⁴ no subvarieties are mentioned, and possibly these were comparatively late inventions. Of Yamaka, on the other hand, ten subspecies are elaborately defined and illustrated. a number exceeding even that given by Bhāmaha. It would appear that in the earlier stages of Poetics, what in later authors is known as a śabdūlamkāra

¹¹ Vız. (1) ckasya ekena (11) ekasya anekena (111) anekasya ekena (111) bahūnām bahubhih.

¹² Abhinavagupta notices the reading asadṛśī.

¹³ This figure is certainly one of the most ancient, and the idea of it was not unknown to Yāska (see vol. i, pp. 3-6).

¹⁴ The arrangement of the text dealing with these two figures differ in the different editions. But the wordings agree with the exception of samprakīrtitam xiv. 55 (in Kāvyamālā ed.), which is obviously a misreading for sampradīpakam (as Abbinava's comm. shows), given correctly in other editions.

¹⁵ Most of the names of these varieties have survived in Bhatti, Dandin and other writers; but they are in most cases differently defined, See vol. i, p. 54 footnote 2.

(of which the artifices of Yamaka in particular seem to have found the greatest favour) received a more elaborate treatment. although the process repeats itself in comparatively modern decadent authors who delight in such external poetic devices. The later distinction between sabdālamkāra and arthālamkāra is not referred to by Bharata, as also by Bhāmaha; but Bharata uses the word sabdābhyāsa with reference to Yamaka, which term might have suggested, as Abhinava's commentary on this point indicates, the later classification, which is implied for the first time by Daṇḍin's treatment.

Atter the Alamkāras, comes the treatment of ten doşas (xvi. 84f) and ten guṇas (xvi. 92f), which seem to have constituted the orthodox number of faults and excellences of poetic composition. We shall have occasion to deal with the doctrine of Guṇa and Doşa in connexion with the Rītitheorists, who for the first time take it up seriously; but it

16 As in Bhatti, Dandin, Vamana, Rudrata, the Agni-purana and Bhoja among older authors. Bhamaha gives only five varieties, and Udbhata is the only old writer who altogether omits its treatment. figure, as Bharata's elaborate treatment would show, must have been very early comprehended, e.g., in Rāmāyaņa, Sundarakānda v 15-17 in Rudradaman inscription of the 2nd century A.D. Possibly it was favoured as a not unlikely substitute for rhyme, which is nearly absent in earlier Sanskrit and which probably originated from antyanuprasa in later literature. But Mammata and later writers, following perhaps the dictum of Anandavardhana (on ii. 16 f) that yamaka, in order to be really poetical, requires a special effort on the part of the poet, and is in no way accessory to rasa, allude to it but dismiss it in a few words. As critical insight into the aesthetic requirements of poetry grew, the number of such figures as depended for their appeal chiefly on clever verbal arrangement, as well as their treatment in Poetics, naturally dwindled, although yamaka itself (as well as anuprāsa) played a much larger part in later decadent poetry. Bhoja, with an inaccuracy characteristic of later writers, speaks of tricks like muraja-bandha as having been bharatakathital

17 Abhinava, however, reads into Bharata such a distinction, and in his *Locana p. 5 he says: cirantanair hi bharata-muni-prabhttibhir yamakopame sabdārthālamkāratveneste.

may be pointed out here that Bharata's enumeration and definition of individual Doşas and Guṇas do not exactly correspond to those of his nearest successors. Except keeping to the conventional number of ten (although Bhāmaha introduces an eleventh fault from the standpoint of logical correctness¹⁸ and a list of ten intrinsic poetic faults in a different context, as he also mentions only three poetic excellences), both Bhāmaha and Daṇḍin do not appear to have accepted implicitly this part of Bharata's teaching.

The faults mentioned by Bharata (xvi. 84) are:10

- i. gūdhārtha=circumlocution or periphrase (paryāyaśabdābhihitam²0),
- ii. arthāntara=digression into irrelevant matter (avarņyasya varņanam²¹),
- 18 With the exception of the eleventh fault, Dandin is not only in complete agreement with Bhāmaha but really follows the latter's enumeration and definitions almost literally. This point will be discussed later.
- 19 On Bharata's Dosas see V. Raghavan, Sṛṅgāra-prakāša, pt. ii, pp. 229-233. In Kautilya's Artha-śāstra the defects of the art of writing are: vyāghāta (contradiction), punarukta (repetition), apašabda (grammatical incorrectness) and samplava (misarrangement of words).
- 20 This phrase in Bharata cannot mean "expression by means of a synonym", for it would then be difficult to differentiate this Doşa from ekārtha given below. Possibly this is the fault which appears in later writers as the figure of speech known as paryāyokta (=roughly, circum-locution or periphrase as a poetic figure). It is apparently so explained by Abhinavagupta. It is possible that later rhetoricians perceived that periphrase might sometimes be an ornament of expression, and thus analysed it into a poetic figure; and this may be taken as an instance in point of the process by which poetic figures were multiplied in later speculation.
- 21 Abhinava takes it in the sense of description of matters which should not be described in words (śabdenāvarṇanīyam api varṇitam), and rejects the sense of aprākṛta-varṇanaṃ. We are, however, inclined to prefer the sense of digression rejected by Abhinava. The defect vācyāvacana, mentioned by Mahimabhatta (p. 100), would possibly be this Doṣa of Bharata. This seems to be the fault in Māgha i. 43. Abhinava regards the sva-śabda-vācyatā-doṣa of Rasa and Bhāva as

- iii. artha-hīna=incoherence (asambaddha), or multiplicity of meaning (asesārtha),
- iv. bhinnārtha=(a) rusticity or want of refinement (asabhya or grāmya), or (b) changing the desired sense by another sense (vivaksito'nya evārtho yatrānyārthena bhidyate),
 - v. ekārtha=tautology (ekārthasya abhidhānom),
- vi. abhiplutārtha=aggregation of complete lines without merging them into a complete sentence (yat padena samasyate²²).
- vii. nyāyād apetam = defective logic (pramāṇa-varjitam),
- viii. vişama=defective metre (vrtta-doşa),
- ix. visamdhi=disjunction in which the words are not well knit²³.
- x. \$abda-hīna=use of ungrammatical words (asabdas) a yojanam²⁴).

But the faults discussed by Bhāmaha are (ch. iv):

- i. apārtha = absence of complete sense²⁵,
- ii. vyartha=incongruity with the context,
- iii. ekārtha = tautology (Bhāmaha noting that others call

included in Bharata's arthāntara-doşa, although it is not clear whether Bharata himself regarded this sva-ŝabda-vācyatā to be a Doşa at all.

- 22 Abhinava explains: abhiplutārtham yathā—sa rājā nīti-kuśalaḥ saraḥ kumuda-śobhitam / sarva-priyā vasanta-śrīḥ grīṣme mālatikā-gamaḥ/iti; atra pratipadam arthasya parisamāptavād abhiplutārtham, eka-vākyatvena nimajjanābhāvāt.
- 23 The reading anupratisthāsabdam yat is obviously incorrect. Abhinava's explanation is not clear; but he appears to read anupārūdha-sabdam. By saṃdhi or saṃdhāna he appears to mean compactness, congruity or merging, i. e. where the words are well knit. The Gaekwad ed. reading anupaślista-śabdam is more apposite, but perhaps it is not original.
 - 24 aśabda = apaśabda, Abhinavagupta.
- 25 Both Bhāmaha and Daṇḍin say samudāyārtha-śūnyaṃ yat, and this incompletion of the total sense arises, they explain, from the non-satisfaction of the natural expectancy of words in a sentence (ākānkṣā), a point already dealt with by grammarians and Mīmāṃsakas.

it punarukta, which well-known term is apparently unknown to Bharata).

- iv. sasamśava=ambiguity,
- v. apakrama=violation of syntactical regularity.
- vi. śabda-hīna = use of words not approved by correct usage (grammatical),
- vii. yati-bhrasta=deviation from the rules of metrical pause,
- viii. blunna-vṛtta=use of long or short syllables in the wrong place in a metre,
 - ix. visamdhi=disjunction of euphonic liaison when it is necessary,
 - x. deśa-kāla-kalā-loka-nyāyāgama-virodhi=inconsistency with regard to (a) place (b) time (c) the fine or mechanical arts (d) worldly usage (e) logic (f) āgama (=dharma-śāstra²⁶ 1. e. codes of law or jurisprudence).

Bhāmaha also adds another fault to these ten, viz.. the Doşa which arises from a faulty logical proposition (pratijñā), a faulty middle term (hetu), and a faulty logical illustration (distānta); but this blemish is treated in a separate chapter (ch. v), being interesting to Bhāmaha from the standpoint of the logic of poetry. In another context, while discussing the general characteristics of poetry (1.37f). Bhāmaha mentions ten other defects which a poet should avoid, viz.:

- i. ncyārtha = farfetchedness, when the sense does not follow from the logical order of words but has to be guessed from the general intention,
- ii. klista=obstruction of the sense.
- iii. anyārtha=disappearance of the sense,
- iv. avācaka=inexpressiveness, when in the expressed words the sense does not appear to be openly dominant.

26 āgamo dharma-sāstrāņi, loka-sīmā ca tat-kṛtā / tad-virodhi tadā-cāra-vyatikramaņato ..// says Bhamaha himself in explanation (iv. 48).

- v. gūdha-śabdābhidhāna=use of difficult expressions.
- vi. ayuktimat = impropriety, e.g. making clouds massengers in poetry,
- vii. śruti-duşţa=expressly indecent²⁷,
- viii. artha-dusța=implicitly indecent (later writers calling it aslīlatva).
 - ix. kalpanā-duṣṭa = defective conception, where in the alliance of two words an undesirable sense is produced,
 - x. *sruti-kaşta*=unmelodious or harsh in sound²⁸.

After giving these ten Dosas Bhāmaha points out (i. 54-58) how these Dosas may sometimes become Gunas. As to how these two different series of ten faults are to be distinguished, Bhāmaha says nothing: but it is conceivable from his treatment that the latter concerns the inner nature or essence of poetry, while the former refers to only such defects as are more or less external. A glance at these two lists of faults, given by Bharata and Bhāmaha respectively, will at once shew that while some of Bhamaha's faults correspond generally to Bharata's in name or in substance. Bhāmaha in his elaborate treatment is certainly more advanced than his predecessor. It is also noteworthy that Bhamaha lays down, in his discussion of the last-named fault of śruti-kasta, the general proposition (i. 54) that a particular combination or arrangement sometimes makes even defective expressions allowable; in other words, a fault sometimes is converted into an excellence. Bharata. on the other hand, regards, as we shall see, all Gunas or excellences to be mere negations of Dosas or faults.

After dealing with the Doşas, Bharata speaks of the Gunas or excellences of composition which are also enumerated as

²⁷ Bhamaha's text is obviously corrupt on this point. But the distinction between *śruti-dusta* and *śruti-kasta* of earlier writers is explained by Abhinava in his "Locana p. 82 (on ii. 12).

²⁸ The examples given of this fault are words like ajchladat (Bhāmaha), or adhāksī, akşautsīt, tṛṇeḍhi (Abhinava, Locana loc. cit.).

ten in number²⁹. He states summarily at the outset (xvi. 91) that the Gunas are negations of the Dosas (gunā viparyayād esām), an opinion which is indeed extraordinary in view of the fact that later writers like Vāmana (ii. 1. 1-3) rightly consider Gunas in a theory of Poetics to be positive entities, of which the Dosas are the negations known by implication. It appears, on the other hand, that Gunas like madhurya and audarya. mentioned by Bharata in xvi. 91 and 92, are not really, as defined by himself, negations of any particular defect discussed Jacobi's explanation³⁰ is probably right that Bharata's description of the Gunas as negations of the Dosas is in conformity with the common-sense view of the matter. for it is not difficult for one to seize upon a fault instinctively. while an excellence cannot be conceived so lightly unless its essence is comprehended by differentiating it from a more easily understood fault. The Gunas, according to Bharata (xvi. 92), are the following³¹:

- i. *\$leşa*=coalescence of words, connected with one another through the aggregate meaning desired by the poet, and consisting of a subtlety which in appearence is clear but in reality difficult to comprehend³².
- ii. prasāda=clearness, where the unexpressed sense appears from the word used through the relation of the easily understood word and sense²³.
- 29 Abhinava reads kāvyasya guṇāḥ in xvi. 92 as in Gaekwad and Chowkhamba eds., and not kāvyārtha-guṇāḥ as in Kāvyamālā ed.
 - 30 In Sb. der preuss. Akad. xxiv, 1922, p. 223.
- 31 The alternative readings show that the text for some Gunas also existed in two recensions. Abbinavagupta attempts throughout to approximate Bharata's Gunas to those of Vamana and strains to make Gunas of Sabda and Artha out of each. Hence he is not a safe guide for this portion of the text. On the Gunas of Bharata see V. Raghavan Srāgāra-prakāša, pp. 271-81.
- 32 Hemacandra (p. 196) and Māņikyacandra (p. 191) remark: svabhāva-spaştam vicāra-gahanam vacah slistam iti bharatah. Abhinava thinks that this excellence corresponds to Vāmana's sabda-guņa slesa.
 - 33 Hemacandra and Manikyacandra explain: vibhakta-vācya-

- iii. samatā=evenness, which is easy to understand and in which there is no redundance of expression nor excess of cūrna-padas³⁴.
- iv. samādhi=superimposition (samādhāna) of something special or distinguishing in the sense.

Jacakayogad anuktayor api sabdarthayoh pratipattih prasada iti bharatah. Jacobi proposes (ZDMG lxiv, p. 138 contd. fn.) to read mukhye instead of mukha in the text, and thinks that Bharata's prasada corresponds to Dandin's samādhi. But Abhinava reads sukha and explains: sukhayati, na prayatnam apeksate yah sabdarthah. Perhaps by this Guna, Bharata means to imply some kind of hint (anukta artha), transparent from the words used (such as we find, e.g., in the figure mudrā in Candrāloka, ed. Jivananda, v. 139, and Kuvalayānanda, ed. N.S.P., 1917, pp. 146-7), which may correspond partly to the metaphorical mode of expression included by Vamana in his peculiar definition of vakrokti (iv. 3, 8.), or comprised by later writers under laksana or upacāra. Referring to Vāmana's definition of artha-guna prasāda as artha-vaimalya (iii. 2.3), Abhinava seems to support our suggestion when he says so'rtho vaimalyāsrayo'pi vaimalyam upacārāt, thus attempting to approximate Bharata's prasada to Vamana's artha-guna of that name.

- 34 The curṇa-pada is defined by Bharata himself in xviii. 50b, 51 Cf. Vāmana 1. 3. 22, 24 where cūrṇa is the name given to a kind of prose, which contains short compounds. Commenting on this passage in Vāmana, Gopendra Tippa Bhūpāla interprets the word as: cūrṇa-padena upacārād vyasta-pada-samāhārc lakṣyate, tena vyasta-pada-bahulaṃ cūrṇam. Vāmana himself in his Vṛtti gives two characteristics, viz., adīrgha samāsa and anuddhata pada, short compounds and soft vocables. Referring to Vāmana's śabda-guṇa of the same name in iii. 1. 12, and trying to approximate it to Bharata's samatā, Abhinavagupta remarks: śabdānāṃ samatvāt samaḥ, cūrṇa-padair a-samāsa-racanā yatra sātiśayā na bhavati,......dīrgha-samāso'pyatyanta-samāsaś ca viṣamatā, tad-viparyayeṇa samatā, upakrānta-mārgāparityāga-rūpety uktam.
- 35 Abhinava explains: yasyārthasya abhiyuktaiḥ pratibhānātišayavadbhir višeşo'pūrvaḥ svollikhita upapadyate sa samāhīta-manaḥsampādya-višeşatvād artho višistaḥ samādhiḥ. In the second line of the text Abhinava reads parikīrtitaḥ (and not parikīrtyate), and takes arthena as referring to the word samādhi: samādhi-šabdasya yo'rthaḥ parihāralakṣaṇas tena parikīrtitaḥ paritaḥ samantād ākrāntyā uccāraṇe saṃpannaḥ. This explanation of saṃpanna is probably given to make the definition correspond to that of Vāmana's ārohāvaroha-kramaḥ sumā-

- v. $m\bar{a}dhurya$ = sweetness, where a sentence heard of repeated many times does not tire or disgust⁴⁶.
- vi. ojas=strength, which consists in the use of varied and dignified compounded words, having letters agreeable to one another³⁷.
- vii. saukumūrya=smoothness, where an agreeable sense is realised by means of agreeably employed words and well-connected euphonic conjunctions.
- viii. artha-vyakti = explicitness, which describes the nature of things, as they appear in the world. by means of well known predicates³⁹.
- dhih (iii. 1. 13); for Abhinava goes on explaining ākrāntyoccārāņe ārohāvaroha-krama eva, the āroha and avaroha depending, as he discusses in detail, on uccārana. Hemacandra and Māṇikyacandra explain Bharata's definition simply as arthasya guṇāntara-samādhānāt samādhir iti bharatah.
- 36 Abhinava reads *śrutam* and *vākyam* instead of *krtam* and *kāvyam* in the printed text (Kāvyamālā ed.); and this is supported by what Hemacandra and Mānikyacandra say with regard to this excellence of Bharata. The other eds. give the words correctly.
- 37 Abhinava reads bahubhih (instead of vividhaiḥ) and sānurāgaiḥ (instead of sā tu svaraih), explaining the latter reading thus: yatra varṇair varṇāntaram apekṣate tatra sānurāgatvam. Hemacandra, however, attributes a different definition to Bharata, viz., avagītasya hīnasya vā sabārtha-saṃpadā yad udāttatvaṇi niṣiñcati kāvayas tad oja iti bharatah; and Māṇikyacandra says to the same effect (this follows the reading of Recension B): avagīto'pi kīno'pi syād udāttāvabhāsakaḥļ, yatra sabdārtļa saṃpattyā tad ojaḥ parikīrtītaḥļ.
- 38 Abhinavagupta reads sukha-prayojyais chandobhih (for sukha-prayojyair yac chabdaih) in the text. Hemacandra and Māṇikyacandra simply paraphrase: sukha-sabdārtham saukumāryam iti bharataḥ.—The "agreeable sense" (sukumārātha), which corresponds to the anisthu-rākṣara-prāyatā of Daṇḍin's Guṇa of this name, or to the ajarathatva or apāruṣya of Vāmana's twofold saukumārya, implies probably the avoidance of disagreeable or inauspicious (amaṅgala) statements. Thus instead of mṛtaḥ, one should say kīrtiseṣaṃ gataḥ. It is on this ground that theorists after Mammaṭa object that this is no Guṇa but a negation of the amangala dosa, which some writers include in the fault known as astilatva.
 - 39 The text is obviously corrupt. Abhinava reads suprasiddhā-

- ix. udāra=exaltedness. where there are superhuman sentiments, varied feelings, and the Erotic and the Marvellous moods⁴⁰.
- x. kānti=loveliness, which delights the ear and the mind, or which is realised by the meaning conveyed by graceful gestures (līlādi*1).

It will be noticed from this enumeration that in some cases it is difficult to see what Bharata means exactly by a particular Guna, and that the classification is by no means exhaustive nor free from overlapping. On the other hand, some of the Gunas can be taken (as Abhinavagupta takes them) as approximating roughly to the individual sabda-gunas and arthagunas elaborated by Vamana and other later theorists. The development of the Guna-doctrine is intimately connected bhidhana tu instead of suprasiddua dhatuna ca. which phrase, however, may mean use of well known verbs. Read also loka-dharma° instead of toka-karına' Hemacandra explains, yasmını anyathūsthito'pi tathā-sthita evāithah pratibhāti so'rthavvaktih. He also points out that this Guna of Bharata corresponds to Vamana's artha-guna arthavyaktı (defined as vastu-svabhāva-sphutatvam in. 2. 13), and would be equivalent to the poetic figure jūti or svabhūvokti of Dandın and others. Cf. Mammata p. 583: abhidhāsyamāna-svabhāvoktyalamkāreņa vastu-svabhāva-sphutatva-rūpārthavyaktih sviktiā, but Visvanātha would include it in prasāda-guna.

- 40 The implication of adbhutu Rasa in this excellence and the characteristic that it deals with divya-bhōva indicate a certain utkarṣavān dharmah, causing wonder, such as Dandin's udāra would contain. See the illustration of this Guna given by Hemacandra p. 199. The inclusion of the śṛngāra and adbhuta Rasas makes this Guṇa of Bharata correspond partly to Vāmana's artha-guna kānti. But Dandin adds: ślāghyair višeṣanair yuktam udāram kalścid iṣyate. There is no reference in Bharata to such 'praiseworthy epithets', although Hemacandra says: bahubhin sūkṣmaiś ca višeṣan sametam udāram iti bharatah. In the Agni-purāna 346. 9, however, we read: uttāna-padataudāryaṃ yutam ślāghyaii višeṣanath, which might be a direct echo of Dandin.
- 41 iīlādi—līlādi-cestā Abhinavagupta This would be comprehended by the dīpta-rasatvam of Vāmana's artha-guna kānti,—Kauţilya (ii. 28) mentions the following characteristics of the art of writing: artha-krama (arrangement of subject-matter), sambandha (relevancy), paripūrņatā (completeness), mādhurya (sweetness), audārya (dignity), and spaṣṭatva (clearness).

with the central theory of the Rīti-school and will be dealt with later; but it may be pointed out here that although the definitions of the individual Gunas, given by Bharata, do not correspond exactly to those of later writers, there can be no doubt that here we have for the first time a definite statement. if not a proper theoretic treatment, of the doctrine. The disagreement between different theorists with regard to the definitions of individual Gunas is a well known fact in the history of Sanskrit Poetics, and one need not therefore be surprised that later authors give us definitions which do not agree with those of Bharata. To Bharata, again, the relation of the gunas to rīti, as elaborated by Vāmana, or to rasa, as first clearly enunciated by the Dhvanikara and Anandavardhana, was probably unknown. So was also Vāmana's distinction between sabda guna and artha-guna, although Bharata's gunas are mostly of the nature of artha-gunas, and some of them can be interpreted (as done by Abhinavagupta) as constituting sabda-gunas as well. But the number and nomenclature of the Gunas, as well as the substance of some of them, as outlined by Bharata, are conventionally adhered to by all later writers, excepting Bhāmaha who, as we shall see, was a radical thinker in this respect, until we come to the Dhvanikāra and his followers who give a new interpretation to the Guna-doctrine. It is also important to note that Bharata takes the gunas, as well as the dosas and alamkāras. to be subservient to the purpose of awakening rasa, which is taken as the principal business of the drama. In this he anticipates and probably influences the view of the Dhyanikāra and his school who, as we shall see, borrow Bharata's idea of Rasa from the case of the drama and apply it to that of poetry.

(2)

It has been noted above that Bharata makes all these elements, lakṣaṇa, guṇa, doṣa and alaṃkāra, subordinate to the principal purpose of awakening rasa in the drama.

These elements constitute what he calls vācika abhinaya (defined in viii. 6, 9), which is dealt with in chapters xiv-xx and which forms an important factor, the anubhāva (vii. 5), in calling forth the Rasa. Hence Bharata expressly considers (xvi. 104 f) the question of their employment in relation to Rasa. It is necessary, therefore, to consider here briefly Bharata's teachings regarding Rasa⁴³, which is dealt with in the Nāţya-śāstra, chapters vi and vii⁴³.

It must be observed at the outset that Rasa does not appear to be Bharata's principal theme, and that it is discussed only in connexion with his exposition of dramatic representation with which he is principally concerned. It is not surprising, therefore, that Rājaśekhara, probably following some current tradition, should regard Bharata as an authority on Rūpaka (drama) rather than on Rasa, and mention one Nandikeśvara⁴⁴ as the original exponent of the Rasa-doctrine which, if Rājaśekhara is right, Bharata must have borrowed and worked up into his dramaturgic system. That the Rasa-doctrine was older than Bharata is apparent from Bharata's own citation or several verses in the Āryā and the Anuştubh metres in support of or in supplement to his own statements; and in one place, he appears to quote two Āryā-verses from an unknown work on Rasa⁴⁵

The idea of Rasa, apart from any theory thereon, was

- 42 The question has been dealt with briefly in S. K. De, Theory of Rasa in Sir Asutosh Mookerjee Silver Jubitee Commemoration Volume, Orientalia, vol. iii, 1922. reprinted in Some Problems of Skt. Poetics, Calcutta 1959, pp. 177-235.
- 43 In some other chapters Bharata deals with the cognate topics of the Nāyaka and Nāyikā and their adjuncts and emotional states, which will be referred to in their proper place below (ch. viii).
 - 44 See vol. 1 p. 1, 2, 19.
- 45 atrārye rasa-vicāra-mukhe, ed. Kāvyamālā p. 67. The line is wanting in Grosset's edition. Keśava Miśra, a comparatively recent writer of the 16th century, speaks of one bhagavān Sauddhodani who, according to him, was a sūtra-kāra on Rasa; but the opinions of this otherwise unknown writer (see vol. 1, p. 219), as recorded by Keśava Miśra, do not deviate materially from the conventional views

naturally not unknown to old writers; and Bharata's treatment would indicate that some system of Rasa, however undeveloped, or even a Rasa school, particularly in connexion with the drama, must have been in existence in his time. But the bearings of this doctrine on poetry were seldom discussed, and the importance of Rasa as one of the essential factors of poetry was indeed naïvely understood but was not theoretically established.⁴⁸ As Dramaturgy was in the beginning a separate study, from which Poetics itself probably took its cue, the Rasa-doctrine, which sprang up chiefly in connexion with this study, confined its activity in the first stage of its development to the sphere of dramatic composition and exerted only a limited influence on poetic theories.⁴⁷ The importance of this dramaturgic Rasa-system must have been somewhat overshadowed by the early dominance, in Poetics

of those later writers of the new school who admit the essentiality of Rasa.

46 We get the first definite exposition, as we shall see, of the idea of Rasa and its relation to poetry in the works of the Dhvanikāra and Anandavardhana: and its importance in poetry, as distinguished from the drama, was probably understood from that time Magha in some verses (see vol. i pp. 61, fn 3) shows himself conversant with some theory of Rasa; but it is to natyarasa (such as described by Bharata) rather than to kāvya-rasa that he appears to refer. It is not maintained that older Sanskrit Poetry was devoid of Rasa or that the earlier poets never possessed any idea of it; but it is suggested that the theory of Rasa was not critically set forth, nor its aesthetic importance in poetry properly understood until the Dhvanikara and Anandavardhana came into the field. The presence of Rasa is such a familiar fact in Sanskrit Poetry as well as in comparatively modern Sanskrit writers on Poetics that one is apt to lose sight of this fact of historical importance.

47 That the doctrine of Rasa was originally associated with dramaturgy and later on applied to Poetics is clear from the tradition which survives even in very late writers, and makes them not only discuss the theory directly in connexion with the drama (e. g. Viśvanātha) but even borrow the illustrations mostly from dramatic poetry. Abhinava speaks of the Kāvya as loka-nāţya-dharmi-sthānīya, and says: nātya eva rasaḥ, kāvye ca nāţyāya-māna eva rasaḥ kāvyārthah.

proper, of the Alamkara and Rīti systems, whose traditions are carried on by the two earliest writers on Poetics, Bhamaha and Dandin, both of whom allow a very subsidiary place to Rasa in their scheme; but at the same time the comparative antiquity of such a Rasa-system in connexion with the drama, going back to a time even earlier than Bharata, cannot be doubted.

The oldest known exponent of this system is Bharata, from whom spring all later systems and theories such as we know them, and whom even Anandavardhana himself (p. 181), in applying the Rasa-theory to Poetics, names as his original authority. It is necessary for this reason to take into account Bharata's doctrine of nātya-rusa as the original source of the doctrine of $k\bar{a}yya$ -rasa elaborated in later Poetics. But long before the new interpretation of the relation of Rasa to poetry, given by the Dhvanikara and authoritatively established by Mammata, was dominant, Bharata's views on Rasa appear to have been discussed in some detail in dramaturgic systems with the result that divergent theories came to prevail under the names of Bhatta Lollata, Śankuka, Bhatta Nayaka and others, all of whom are supposed to have been commentators on Bharata's text4b, or at least to have taken Bharata as their starting point. With Bharata, therefore, we arrive at a distinctly definite landmark in respect of the Rasa-doctrine.

It is worth noticing, however, that although all theorists take Bharata as their starting point and build up their own theories round his authoritative, if somewhat meagre, text. Bharata himself, like all old masters, is tantalisingly simple in his statements; for the subject does not appear to have yet been brought into the realm of scholastic speculation. Bharata's work is encyclopaedic in its scope, but its primary theme is the drama and its conception of poetry dramatic, a view which perhaps inspired Vāmana's partiality towards

dramatic composition already alluded to, and which is concisely put by Abhinavagupta by saying kāvyam tāvad dašarūpātmakam eva. In such a composition Rasa, according to Bharata, should be predominant, and there are numerous passages which clearly indicate that there can be no sense of poetry, in his view, without Rasa48. Although Bharata does not enter into technicalities, he seems to be of opinion that the vibhāvas and the anubhāvas, which later theory takes to be essential factors, call forth or evolve Rasa; but he is not clear as to what this process of evolution exactly is. He takes the bhāva as the basis of Rasa and explains it generally as that which brings into existence the sense of poetry through the three kinds of representation, viz., through words, gestures, and internal feelings (vāg-anga-sattyopetān kāvyārthān bhāvayantīti bhāvāh). This Bhāva, which consists of an emotional state of the mind, reaches, when permanent and not transitory, the state of Rasa through the elements known as vibhava and anubhāva A vibhāva is explained thus: vibhāvo nāma vijñānārthah, vibhāvyante'nena vāg-anga-sattvābhinayā itv ato vibhāvah. The term vibhāva, therefore, is used to connote knowledge or cognition, and is explained generally as denoting that which makes the three kinds of representation capable of being sensed. In the same way, the anubhava is explained as that which follows upon and makes the three kinds of representation actually sensed. The third element of Rasa. the vyabhicāri-bhāva, consists of accessory emotional facts which help and strengthen it, and is etymologically explained as: vi abhi i!y etāvupasargau, cara gatau dhātuh, vividham ābhimukhyena rasān carantīti vyabhicāriņaķ. As to what relation these elements bear to Rasa and how this state of relish is brought about, Bharata simply lays down in a crypvibhāvānubhāva-vyabhicāri-samyogād rasanispattih, a formula which, in spite of his own explanation, is so ambiguous with respect to the exact significance of the

⁴⁹ e. g. na hi rasād rte kaścid arthah pravartate, ed. Grosset p. 87=ed. Kāvyamālā p. 62. Cf. also vii. 7.

has centred round their interpretation, giving rise to a number of theories about Rasa. Bharata's own explanation, if it can be called an explanation, is that just as a beverage is accomplished through various seasoned articles and herbs, so the permanent mood (the sthāyi-bhāva), reinforced (upagata) by various bhāvas, attains the state of Rasa; and it is so called because its essence consists in its taste or relish (āsvādyatvāt), this being the etymological meaning of the word rasa⁵⁰. He also explains⁵¹ that the sthāyi-bhāva is the basis of Rasa because it attains, as it were, mastery or sovereignty among forty-nine different bhāvas mentioned by himself⁵², which naturally rest upon it as being presumably the principal theme or mood in the composition in question.

Nothing definite can be concluded from all this except that, in Bharata's opinion, the sthāyi-bhāva or the principal mood in a composition is the basis of Rasa, the essence of which consists in āsvāda or relish by the reader or spectator, while the vibhāva, anubhāva and the vyābhicāri-bhāva awaken this state of emotional realisation or 'relish' in the reader's mind. But this explanation by its very ambiguity or vagueness taxed the ingenuity of theorists and commentators, its general trend anticipating theories like the utpatti-vāda of Lollața and the anumiti-vāda of Sańkuka, and special terms in the passage in question like vyañjita and sāmānya-guṇa-yoga suggesting specialised doctrines like the vyakti-vāda of Abhinavagupta and the bhukti-vāda of Bhatta Nāyaka.

The original outlines of the theory, however, are accepted as fixed by Bharata. It is practically admitted on all hands, on semi-psychological considerations of poetry, that the Rasa

⁵⁰ ed. Grosset p. 87 = ed. Kāvyamālā p. 62. It should be noticed that all the terms which describe the essence of Rasa such as rasanā, carvaṇā, or āsvāda, refer etymologically to the physical pleasure of taste; this point will be dealt with below.

⁵¹ ed. Grosset p. 102, ll. 7-19 ed Kāvyamālā p. 70, ll. 13-22.

⁵² viz., 8 sthūyi-bhūvas, 8 sūttvika bnūvas and 33 vyabhicāribhāvas

is a state of relish in the reader of the principal sentiment in the composition, a subjective condition of his mind which is brought about when the principal or permanent mood (sthayi $bh\bar{a}va$) is brought into a relishable condition through the three elements, the vibhava, the anubhava and the vyabhicari-bhava, exhibited in the drama. Of these elements, the first two are important, the vyabhicarin being only concomitant or accessory. Bharata's explanation of these terms is rendered with greater precision by his followers. By the sthayi-bhava in poetry and drama are meant certain more or less permanent mental states, such as Love, Grief, Anger or Fear. permanent mood, constituting the principal theme of a composition and running through all other moods like the thread of a garland, cannot be overcome by those akin to it or those opposed to it, but can only be reinforced. Those elements which respectively excite, follow and strengthen (if we may use these expressions) the sthayi-bhava are in poetry and drama known as vibhāva, anubhāva and vvabhicāri- (also called samcāri-) bhāva⁵³, corresponding in ordinary life (as opposed to the extraordinary world of poetry) to the mundane causes and effects (laukika kārana and kārya). of technicalities, a vibhāva may be taken as that which makes the permanent mood capable of being sensed, an anubhāva as that which makes it actually sensed, while a vyabhicāri-bhāva is that which acts as an auxiliary or gives a fresh impetus to it. In the case of Love as a permanent mood, the stock-examples given of a vibhava are women and the seasons; of anubhava, glance and embrace; of vyabhicārin, the transient subordinate feelings of joy or anxiety. Now Bharata says that the reader is enabled to realise or relish as Rasa the permanent mood of a composi-

⁵³ Ballantyne renders these terms conveniently, if not adequately, as the Excitant, the Ensuant and the Accessory respectively, a nomenclature which is followed by Ganganatha Jha in his translation of the Kāvya-prakāśa. Jacobi, however, uses (ZDMG. 1902, pp. 394 f) the terms Factor, Effect and Concurrent.

tion through a certain correlation of these elements with the permanent mood, the correlation taking place apparently for the purpose of manifesting it and bringing at to a relishable condition. The question, therefore, arises, to which Bharata himself gives no definite solution, viz. what relation these elements bear to Rasa, or in other words, how do they bring about this subjective condition of relish in the reader's mind, the solution depending, as we have noted above, upon the explanation of the two much-discussed terms samyoga (lit. correlation) and nispati (lit. consummation) in the original sūtra of Bharata. This is the central pivot round which all later theories move, and we shall take it up again in their connexion below (ch. iv).

Bharata mentions eight different moods or Rasas in the drama, of which a detailed account is given in Nāṭya-śāstra ch. vi, which is the authoritative source drawn upon by all later writers, although they sometimes differ, as we shall see, in the enumeration of the orthodox number of eight. Properly speaking, the primary Rasas, according to Bharata, are only four in number, viz., śṛṅgāra (the Erotic), raudra (the Furious), vīra (the Heroic) and bībhatsa (the Disgusting). The other four Rasas proceed from these, as follow: hāsya (the Comic) from śṛṅgāra, karuṇa (the Pathetic) from raudra, adbhuta (the Marvellous) from vīra, and bhayāṇaka (the Terrible) from bībhatsa (xvi. 39-40).

The eight sthāyi-bhāvas or permanent moods, corresponding to the eight Rasas, are given categorically as (i) rati (Love) (ii) hāsa (Mirth) (iii) krodha (Anger) (iv) utsāha (Courage) (v) bhaya (Fear) (vi) jugupsā (Aversion) (vii) vismaya (Wonder) and (viii) śoka (Sorrow), forming the basis respectively of śṛṅgāra, hāsya, raudra, vīra, bhayānaka, bībhatsa, adbhuta and karuṇa. The vyabhicāri-bhāvas are mentioned as thirty-three in number and include the subordinate feelings of self-disparagement (nirveda), debility (glāni), apprehension (śaṅkā), envy (asūyā), intoxication (mada), Weariness (śrama), indolence (ālasya), depression (dainya).

reflection (cintā), distraction (moha), recollection (smṛti), equanimity (dhṛti), shame (vrīdā), unsteadiness (capalatā), joy (harṣa), flurry (āvega), stupefaction (jaḍatā), arrogance (gurva), despondency (viṣāda), longing (autsukya), drowsiness (nidrā), dementedness (apasmāra), dreaming (supta), awakening (vibodha), impatience of opposition (amarṣa), dissembling (avahittha), sternness (ugratā), resolve (mati), sickness (vyādhi), madness (unmāda), death (maraṇa), alarm (trāsa) and doubt (vitarka)¹⁴. The sāttvika bhāvas, which can be taken generally as involuntary evidences of internal feeling, are then specified as eight in number⁵⁵, viz., stupor (stambha), perspiration

- 54 The English equivalents follow generally Ballantyne's renderings—It must be borne in mind that the vyabhicāri-bhāvas are independent Bhāvas but occurring as accessory or concurrent to the principal mental state depicted, which is known as the sthāyi-bhāva. Sometimes it may happen that the vvabhicārin is principally manifested in a composition, and the sthāyin is merely awakened; such cases later theorists would call bhavas (and not rasas) which are thus incomplete rasas. Attempts have been made to distinguish between Rasa and Bhāva, and this question will be discussed later on. It would appear from the enumeration of the vvabhicāri-bhāvas that the older theorists consider many conditions from the spiritual point of view, which we would regard from the standpoint of the body (e.g. vyādhi or marana). See Jacobi in ZDMG lvi, 1902, p. 395 fn 2.
- 55 Regarding the stitticka bhava (which later theorists, e.g. Abhinavagupta, connect with the settra guna of the Samkhya philosophers), Bharata says (ed. Grosset p. 129 = ed. Kāvyamālā, p. 82): iha hi sattyam nāma manali-prabhayam, tac ca samāhita-manastyād utpadvate, manah-samādhānsīc ca sattva-nirvītir iti; tasva svabhāvə romūñçūsrūdı-kıtah`sa、na Sukvate'nvu-manasū kartum iti; loka-svabhāvānukaranāc ca nātvasva sattvam īpsitam. Thus Bharata connotes by it certain tokens of mental feelings, delineated in the dramatic representation by an imitalion of human nature through steady concentration of the mind. Bharata adds the illustration: iha hi nūţva-dherma-prav) ttāḥ sukha-duḥkha-krto bhūvās tathū sattvavisuddāh kāryā yathā svarūpā bhavanti. For, how can sorrow, he says, which must be manifested by weeping, or joy which must be expressed by laughter, be delineated except by these involuntary evidences? This is apparently what Bharata means by sattvilbhinaya or sāttvikābhinava In the Dasa-rūpaka, however, sattva is taken to mean 'a sympathetic heart' and suttvika is explained as sattvena

(sveda), horripilation (romāñca), break of voice (svara-bhañga), trembling (vepathu), change of colour (vaivarṇya), tears (aśru) and loss of consciousness (pralaya). This psycho-physical analysis, however formal it may appear to us, is taken up in detail in chapter vii, and each of these states is categorically defined and illustrated strictly from the standpoint of the drama; but in later literature they are established authoritatively for pcetry as well⁵⁴.

(3)

This is a rough outline of the teachings, relevant to Poetics proper, that we can gather from the somewhat meagre text of Bharata, and it may be taken as an outline of the discipline as it existed in the earliest known period of its history. With Bhamaha, Dandin and the Dhvanikara, on the other hand, begins the next period of its history, a comparatively brief but exceedingly important stage of extraordinary creative genius. Of the period anterior to Bharata our knowledge is extremely scanty; and between Bharata and the definite formulation of poetic theories which begins with Bhamaha, lies, again, a long gap of which we do not possess much knowledge. It is clear, however, that certain poetical gunas. dosas, alamkāras and laksanas were known to Bharata and dealt with by him even as decorative devices of the dramatic speech. It would not be wrong to presume from this fact that the study of Alamkara-sastra, even if it was not yet fully

nirvīttaļi (Cf Sāhitya-darpaņa iii. 134). Bhānudatta, in his Rasatarangini gives a somewhat different interpretation, and takes sattvika to mean physical gestures as evidences of natural feeling (sativam jiva-šarīram, tasya dharmah süttvikāh, ittham ca Sarīra-bhavah stambhādayaḥ sāttvikā bhāvā itv abhidhīyante). Later writers like the author of the Kāvyaprakūsa-pradīpa bring in philosophical implications sāttvika as originating and interpret sattva-guna. Whatever difference there might be as to the meaning of the term sittvika itself, all the writers on this subject agree in applying the term to denote those gestures (enumerated above) which give an involuntary expression to internal feelings.

⁵⁶ c. g., in Mammata.

developed and self-conscious, was probably older than Bharata himself. It follows from this conclusion that the tradition of opinion, which crystallises itself in the oldest available manuals of Bhamaha and Dandin, or in the memorial verses of the Dhvanikara, comes to us in a definite shape indeed at a date much posterior to Bharata, but it is probable that in substance, if not in actual formulation, it may have been much anterior to Bharata, who himself gives an indication of such teachings. Excepting what we get in isharata, however, the history of this process of crystallisation tfor the different systems appear in a relatively developed form in Bhamaha and others) is not known to us; but it must have covered a tentative stage whose productions, if they had been extant today, would have shown Bhamaha, Dandin and the Dhyanikara in the making, and would have partly filled up the presumably long gap between Bharata and these earliest formulators of Poetics

haven at they were the earliest formulators, neither Bhamaha, ner Dandin, nor the Dhvanikära, however, claims entire ore, tradity of having created the system which he individually represents. None of them can be taken as the absolute founder of the particular doctrines of alamkāra, rīti or dhvani with which they are respectively associated; and with them we do not start at the absolute beginnings of the discipline. Indebtedness of these writers to their predecessors in the line, acknowledged by themselves, has already been noted the first volume of this work (pp. 50, 67-68, 109); but apart from such explicit admissions, one can easily argue that certain fundamental concepts and formulas (such as vakrokti, riti. guņa or alanikāra) appear in writers like Bhāmaha without o recliminary explanation, as things traditionally handed down or alr. ady too well known to require any detailed dissussion. It is also unthinkable that these early writers could have, as they certainly do not claim to have, evolved by themselves the relatively developed form and treatment of the main topic, of Poeties in the absence of earlier tentative works.

It will be profitable, therefore, to pause and chause if these works of Bhamaha and others give us any indication of the stage or stages through which the discipline might have passed in the interval between Bharata and themselves. I ortunately there are passages in these writers which would give us hints as to the existence of such intermediate stages. Jacobi has already shown⁵⁷ that Bhamaha, in his treatment of the poetic figures, groups them in a curious but suggestive way which probably indicates the different stages in the growth and multiplication of such figures before his time. later authors who, adopting some definite principle of classitication, enumerate the poetic figures en masse's, Bhaniaha begins (ii. 4) by naming and defining first a group of five such figures only, and then goes on to enumerate other such limited groups of figures, taking 24 remaining figures in a final group. The first group of figures thus mentioned comprises unuprasa, yamaka, rūpaka, dīpaka and upamā, recognised, as Bhāmaha says, by others (anyair udahrtah) and accepted by himself. These five correspond in reality to the four ancient peetic figures known to and defined by Bharata, viz. yamaka, rapple, dipaka and upamā The additional figure anuprāsa, n entior ed by Bhamaha, can be taken as falling in the same class as yamaka59, the one being varnābhyāsa and the other padābhya-

⁵⁷ In Sb. der preuss Akad xxiv, 1922, pp. 220 222

By the time of Dandin, for instance, a large number of poetic figures appears to have been recognised, and he does not find any necessity of 'reporting' them or mentioning them successively in groups as Bhāmaha does; but he arranges them in his own way, taking the arthālamkāras first and the Sahdālamkāras next, no two separate chapters. Udbhaṭa, a follower of Lhāmaha, doal, with the first three groups of Bhāmaha in the first three chapters of his own work (omitting, however, Bhāmaha's phrases like anyair in lota ah, aparah, abhihutāh kvacit etc, with reference to these promise, the other three chapters taking up the remaining twenty-four figures of the last group. Although he follows generally the sequence as well as the definition of Bhāmaha, he does not recite them in the manner of groups after Bhāmaha.

⁵⁹ The distinction between yamaka and anuprosa may be expanded thus: in the anuprosa there is a repetition of one or more constraints,

sa, while both are what Bharata would call śabdābhyāsa. Abhinavagupta very significantly takes anuprāsa as implied in yamaka by Bharata; and the very fact that the anuprāsa in Bhāmaha is thus clearly differentiated from yamaka may indicate further refinement in the analysis of these figures and betoken a somewhat later stage.

In course of time, six other figures appear to have been analysed and added, and Bhāmaha mentions them next in a They are āksepa, arthantara-nyāsa, vyatireka, group in ii. 66. vibhāvanā, samāsokti and atišavokti. Of these there is no trace in Bharata. This constitutes probably the second stage of development, in which can also be included a seventh figure vārtta, which is referred to by Dandin in i. 85, but which is not accepted by Bhamaha as non-poetic utterance in which there is no Vakrokti (ii. 87)61 The third stage indicated by Bhāmaha's treatment does not appear to have been very productive, for in it we have the addition of only two more figures yathāsamkhya and utprekṣā (ii. 88), and possibly of a third svabhavoku. In this connexion it is noteworthy that by Dandin's time svabhāvokti (also called jāii, recognised by Bāṇabhaṭṭa) is established as the primary or first figure (ādyā

sometimes but not necessarily along with the accompanying vowels in yamaka, the consonants as well as the vowels are repeated strictly in the same order or sequence. In yamaka, the same group of vocables is repeated but it need not have the same meaning, and may even be quite meaningless in itself, but in the repetition of the anuprāsa one should consider the meaning. Nicitam kham upetya nīradaidi privahīnā-hidavāvanīradaih would be an example of one variety of yamaka, while adri-dronī-kulīre kuharim harinārātayo yāpayant would be an example of anuprāsa.

- 60 cnānuprāva-lātīvāder anvna (vamakena) evopasamgrahāt.
- 61 V Raghavan (Some Concepts, p 991), however, argues that in Bhāmaha Vārttā is no name of an Alanikāra.—Here Bhāmaha speaks of three other poetic figures hetu, sūksma and leša, which he rejects as not involving that he calls vakroku. These, however, appear not in direct connexion with this enumeration of poetic figures but in the immediate context of vakroku alluded to in the previous verse. These figures, however, are illustrated (as interpreted by commentators) by Bhatţi, and were probably recognised before Bhāmaha's time.

position; for the latter, in pursuance probably of his peculiar theory of Vakrokti, does not appear to favour this figure very much. With regard to utprekṣā 62, which is indeed an important addition to the Poetics of this period, Bhāmaha reports (ii. 88) that Medhāvin called it saṇkhyāna63. Is it possible that Bhāmaha's predecessor Medhāvin was the first to analyse and name this figure? Daṇḍin, in a well known passage, considers in detail the question whether the word iva is indicative of utprekṣā, a question which was apparently disputed by other rhetoricians between Bhāmaha and Daṇḍin; but in Vāmana we find this is already an established fact. From Bhāmaha ii. 40, again, we learn that Medhāvin set up

- 62 The uspreksā and āksepa as poetic figures are expressly mentioned by Subandhu, ed Srirangam p. 146, while upanā and dīpaka are recognised by Bānabhaṭta (introd. to Kādambarī). Both Subandhu and Bāna speak of composition enlivened by ślesa; but it is not perfectly clear whether they mean by it a prabandha-guna (as in Bharata) or the specific poetic figure of that name. Bhāmaha not only speaks of ślesa but mentions three kinds or cases of its occurrence. Subandhu's boast of having used ślesa (as his commentators interpret) in every word of his composition is not an idle one, and from his use of it, one can indeed incline to the view that Subandhu's ślesa is no other than our modern poetic figure of the same name, especially as Bharata's definition of ślesa as a Guna is hardly applicable to Subandhu's case.
 - 63 The text reads (Bhāmaha 11 88):
 yathāsamkhvam athotpicksām alamkāra-dvant viduk/
 samkhyānam in medhāvinotpicksābhihitā kvacit//

It should be noted in this connexion that Dandin (ii. 273) gives samkhyāna (and krama) as alternative names, not of urpicksā, but of yathāsamkhya, which seems to be more plausible. It is possible that the text is corrupt here. Kane HSP, pp 61-62 suggests the emendation: samkhyānam iti medhāvā notpreksābhihitā kvacit, which he translates as "Medhāvin (calls yathāsamkhya) by the name of samkhvāna, and in some places (in works on alarkāra) utpicksā has not been spoken of as an Alankāra." But the difficulty in accepting this emendation lies in the fact that Dandin's elaborate treatment of utpreksā would indicate that this figure must have assumed enough importance, even in Bhāmaha's time, to have been entirely overlooked in works on Alankāra. Vāmana calls yathāsamkhya by the name of krama.

seven upamā-doşas, and this statement appears to have been accepted by Nami-sādhu (on Rudraṭa xi. 24), who mentions and illustrates the seven Doṣas by examples. Unfortunately we do not possess any other information about Medhāvin (or Medhāvirudra)⁶⁴; and to Nami-sādhu and Rājaśekhara, who cite him, he was possibly nothing more than a name. From Bhāmaha's references, however, it is not unreasonable to presume that Medhāvin was the first writer on Poetics who, at an early period, gave an exposition of two very important poetic figures like upamā and utprekṣā.⁴⁵

After dealing with these groups of figures, Bhāmaha takes up (iii. 1-4) in the next chapter the remaining poetic figures recognised in his time, all in a body, without any further break. These constitute a long list as twenty-four figures. This may be taken as the fourth stage which brings us down to Bhāmaha's own time, and which must have ended with the elaboration of a large number of figures, although the number is not as large as we find it in Daṇḍin's time. This stage is also represented by a canto in the Bhaṭṭi-kāvya which illustrates in all thirty-eight independent poetic figures, although

⁶⁴ See vol i p. 50. Nami-sādhu's quotation from Medhāvin (on xi. 24) merely refers to Bhāmaha 11. 40 which hardly adds enything to our knowledge. Rājašekhara and Vallabhadeva (on Sišu xi. 6) cite Medhāvin as a poet, the former coupling his name with that of Kumāradāsa, and the latter actually citing a verse from Medhāvirudra (see ZDMG lxxiii, 1919, p. 190 fn 1).

⁶⁵ The problems regarding upumā-dosas and utpreksā appear to have engaged, to a great extent, the attention of early writers. See vol. i. p. 60, fn 1 on upamā-doṣas. On utpreksā, see Dandin ii. 226-234, Vāmana iv. 3. 9 vrtti, Udbhaļa ed Telang, pp. 43-46.

⁶⁶ The differentiation and multiplication of poetic figures with the growth of speculation is a iamiliar fact in Alamkāra literature; and it is not surprising that as the study advanced, the process of refining went on until a time came when the number became too unwieldy and the distinctions too fastidious; and then they had to be systematised in the light of some central principle. Such attempts were made from time to time, the earliest of which, as we shall see, was perhaps that of Vāmana.

as we have already discussed ⁴⁷) Bhatti appears to have made use of a text possibly unknown to Bhāmaha, if not materially differing from the latter's sources. There can be no doubt, however, that by this time the standpoint of the Alamkaraśastra was clearly defined and firmly established. With Bhāmaha begins a new epoch in which the uncertain groupings of the earlier periods vanish with the setting up of a more or less authoritative standard,

CHAPTER II

BHAMAHA. UDBHATA AND RUDRATA

(The Alamkara System)

ВНАМАНА

(1)

In Bhāmaha's Kūvyālamkūra, the disserent topics of Poetics are formulated not incidentally, as in Bharata, but in such well-defined outline as would indicate that the Alamkarasastra had already attained the rank of an independent discipline. We have seen that Bharata considered certain important elements of poetry as devices for embellishing dramatic speech and as subservient to the principal purpose of producing the dramatic Rasa. In Bhamaha, on the other hand, the poetical embellishments form the principal object of study; and, while Dramaturgy and Rasa are entirely ignored, we find for the first time a definite scheme of Poetics more or less systematically elaborated and authoritatively established. Bharata's treatment would show that even before his time some of the older poetic figures, most of the Gunas and Dosas, had been recognised and clearly defined, even if no particular theory of Alamkara had been in existence. But Bhamaha throws into prominence these poetic embellishments and the consideration of Gunas and Dosas in their connexion, in conformity perhaps to a tradition from which the whole discipline appears to have received the significant designation of Alamkara-śastra. We have attempted to explain in the preceding chapter that the comparative antiquity of this tradition or of this school of opinion cannot be denied; and the presumption is not unlikely that a system of Alamkara or an Alamkara school (if the term is allowed from the em-

¹ The word 'School' is used here in a very general sense to indicate affiliation to a particular doctrine or system. Only Udbhata

phasis it puts on the consideration of alamkāra or the poetic figure as the principal element of poetry)² existed side by side with the Rasa school or the dramaturgic Rasa-system, and influenced it, as it was to a limited extent influenced by it. But this doctrine or system of Poetics is represented to us by a comparatively late writer like Bhāmaha, who was by no means its original founder.

The general doctrine of this Alamkara-system is almost co-extensive with what appears to have been the original stand-point of the Alamkara-śastra itself as an objective, empirical, and more or less mechanical discipline; for, despite the previous or synchronous existence of a system which elaborated the idea of Rasa in the service of the drama, there is nothing to contradict the hypothesis, which we have already indicated and which is confirmed by the very early existence of the Alamkara-system itself, that Sanskrit Poetics started apparent-

and Vamana, we are told, had their groups of followers respectively designated Audbhatas and Vāmaniyas. But there is no evidence to show that the particular doctrines of Rasa, Alamkara, Riti and even Dhvani were worked out in proper schools, consciously or unconsciously founded by a great writer and supported by his followers. At the same time it can hardly be doubted that in spite of mutual and inevitable contamination or appropriation, these doctrines or systems had a tradition and a history of their own which naturally differentiated them from one another, and each writer conformed, in his fundamental principles, to some theory which threw into preminence one or other of these doctrines. One could say, for instance, that Abhinavagupta owes his allegiance principally to the Dhyani-system of Anandavardhana, although he acknowledges the importance of Rasa or brings in Vāmana's ideas of Guna in his interpretation of those of Bharata. With these reservations, the word 'school' is meant here to denote the different systems which emphasise respectively the Rasa, Alamkāra, Rīti or Dhyani theories -- Samudrabandha (p. 4) speaks of five Paksas or views about Kavya, namely (i) of Udbhala (ii) of Vāmana (III) of Vakroktijīvita-kāra (IV) of Bhatta Nāyaka and (V) of Anandavardhana. The Anumana-paksa of Vyakti-viicka is said to be unworthy of serious consideration.

2 Referring to Bhāmaha, Udbhata and other older writers, Ruyyaka says: tad evem alaņikūra eva kāvye pradhānam iti prācyānāņ matam (p. 7)

ly from some theory of embellishment (alamkāra) which took into consideration the whole domain of poetic figures and confined its energies to the elaboration of more or less mechanical formulas with reference to the technique of expression.3 Just as there may be a theory of painting consisting of a collection of information regarding the techniques of tempera. of oil-painting, of water-colour, of pastel, on the proportion of the human body and on the laws of perspective, the art of poetry was supposed to comprise a collection of precepts relating to the forms of expression, its structural beauty, its damaging faults and its rhetorical ornaments, without going further into the speculative aspects of the problems involved. The whole aesthetic judgment was directed to these means of externalisation, and aesthetic pleasure was regarded objectively from the standpoint of extraneous facts which contributed to it. It cannot indeed be dogmatically stated that the necessity and inevitability of postulating an ultimate principle did not trouble these older writers; but the study must have begun with a method which resulted in the establishment of a series of more or less rigid definitions and categories elaborated to a degree of fineness. The question as to what constitutes poetry or poetic charm, the aesthetic fact, does not arise until Vāmana and the Dhvanikāra come into the field; for earlier authors like Bhamaha (1. 23) and Dandin (i 10) propose to confine themselves chiefly to what they call the kāvya-śarīra³ or the 'body of poetry', as distinguished from its

³ Vol. 1 p 7 Sanskrit Poetry, more than ever in this 'classical' period of its history, appeared as the careful work of a trained and experienced specialist. The tradition of such poetry points naturally to the working of the rules and means of the art into a system. This, combined with a natural and characteristic love of adornment, which demaided an ornamental fitting out of thought and word, probably supplied the original motive-force which brought the study of Poetics into existence. The word "Alamkāra" (lit. embellishment), applied to the discipline itself, as well as to the poetic figure, which forms the main topic of discussion in the earliest extant works from Bhāmaha to Rudrata, would indicate that Sanskrit Poetics had probably grown out of a theory and practice of

ātman, its 'soul' or animating principle. The advantages of verbal arrangement with due regard to the expression of an agreeable sense and of clever clothing of the sense with

embellishment, which included and threw into prominence the whole domain of verbal and ideal figures of speech, those decorative devices by which poetic expression may be rendered attractive that originally Ais Poetica in India, as Jacobi suggests, did not go further than being a series of advice to the poet in his profession. and consisted more or less in formulating prescriptions for the practical working out of poetry. It pointed out the faults to be ayouded and the excellences to be attained, and described the poetical embellishments which should enhance the beauty of expression, insomuch as the whole study came to receive the designation of Alamkāra-sāstra, or the Science of Poetical Embellishment. This theme of the "education" of the poet became in later literature a separate study when the theoretical aspects of the problems involved began to occupy an important place in the discipline, and we find a group of writers devoting themselves entirely to the subject of kari-sikrā which, having the practical and somewhat mechanical training of the poet in his art for its object, really represents the original standpoint of Poetics. Sanskrit poetics was probably raised to the rank of an independent discipline almost about the time when Sanskrit 'Classical' poetry was already overstepping itself in its development.

4 The metaphorical expression kāvya-śarīra with its implied kūvyūtman plays an important part in Sanskrit Poetics throughout its history. Its origin has been traced to the allegory of the Vedapurusa in Rgveda vi. 58. 3 (catvāri śrngā°), and Rājašekhara indulges in an analogous peetic concertion of the Kāvya-purusa (Spirit of Poetry) and his bride Sahitya-vidya. According to Rajasekhara's somewhat fanciful description, the body of this Kāvya-puruşa is composed of word and sense (subdu and artha), the face made of Sanskat, the arms of Prakrit, the hips and loins of Apabhramsa, the feet of Paisaca, and the breast of mixed languages evidently from the linguistic point of view. It is further added that his speech is rich in different modes of poetic expression (ukticanam); moods and sentiments (rasa) make up his soul; metres form the hair of his body; his conversation consists of questions and riddles: and adorned by poetic answers he figures like alliteration and simile. The later writers attempt to arrive at greater precision, first indicated by Vamana, who makes 'diction' (rīti) to be the soul of poetry. That the external art of poetry can be systematised formed one of the fundamental postulates of Sanskrit Poetics; but at the same time the necessity of some deeper principle to explain the manifold character of its content. poetical or rhetorical ornaments absorb the attention of these writers; and whatever may be the theoretic basis of poetic charm. It is enough if it is realised by the objective beauty of ingenious expression.

The two important factors, which go to make up the kāvya-śarīra, i.e. the 'body' or external framework of poetry,

could not be ignored. Hence the attempt to find the 'soul' or the animating principle in the 'body' or external framework of poetry. Bhamalia perhaps vaguely realised this when he proposed to take nakroku as the underlying principle of artistic expression; but Dandin goes a step further and designates the Gunas as the 'lifebreath' (prānāli) of the diction (mārga or rīti), which he sets up as the most important part of poetry. Vāmana is the first known writer to comprehend and state distinctly what this 'soul' is, and the Dhvanikara takes the last step in completing this figurative idea by defining systematically the mutual relation of the 'body' and the 'soul' of poetry. The Dhvanikara implies in it 7 that vyangva artha is this otiman, the gungs being compared to natural qualities like courage, and the alamkaras likened to external ornaments like bracelets which adorn the body. This view is apparently accepted by Manimata (viii 1) and taken as authoritative by all subsequent writers, while Nami-sadhu (on Rudrața xii. 2) gives a similar but not accurate explanation of Rudrata's opinion on the subject final extension of this metaphorical conception is thus set forth by Visvanātha: kūvyasya sabdūrthau sarītam, tasūdis cūtmū, gunāķ kānatyādīvat. rītayo'vayava-samsthānasaundar sädivat. dosāh višesavat, alamkārāh kataka-kundalūdivat, thus comprehending all the elements of poetry, discussed by previous writers, into this elaborate inetaphor. Whatever may be the value of this metaphor as an index to the conception of poetry gradually evolved by Indian theorists, one point is clear, viz., that they all take, from Bhāmaha to Jagannātha, the sabda and artha as constituting what they call the 'body' of poetry; and with this idea the theories start, ultimately ending in a search for its 'soul'. From another point of view, the sabda and artha form the central pivot round which all theories move (for they are all theories starting with expression) with particular reference to the question of the function par excellence operative in poetry. And as the study of Poetics itself, on the admission of some of its greatest exponents, drew its original inspiration from grammatico-philosophical speculations speech, it is not surprising that enormous emphasis should be put on these two elements.

are supposed to be śabda (word) and artha (sense)⁵, and the alamkāras or poetic figures which adorn these are taken as forming the essential sign of a Kāvya. In other words, poetry consists of a verbal composition in which a definite sense must prevail, and which must be made charming by means of certain turns of expression to which the name of poetic figure is given. This general standpoint is implied by Bhāmaha at the very outset in connexion with his general discussion of the two kinds of figures based respectively on word and sense⁶:

rūpakādim alaṃkūraṃ bāhyam ācakṣate pare/
supāṃ tinām ca vyutpattiṃ vācāṃ vāñchanty alaṃkṛtım//,
tad etad āhuḥ sauśabdyaṃ nārtha-vyutpattir īdṛsī/
śabdābhidheyālaṃkāra-bhedād iṣṭaṃ dvayaṃ tu nah//
This passage, quoted with approval in the Vakroktijīvita (on i. 8) and the Kūvya-prakāśa vi, is difficult to
translate, but the meaning is clear and may be freely rendered

- 5 See above footnote 3. Sabūrthau sahitau kūvyam, Bhāmaha i. 16, from which, as Kuntaka indicates, the name scihitya was probably given to poetry. The earliest use probably of this term sāhitya in Sanskrit Poetics occurs in Mukula (pp. 21 and 22) and in his pupil, Pratīhārendurāja, while Rājasekhara expressly uses the term sāhitya-vidyā. The orthodox etymology of the term, which derives it from the above definition of poetry, as the union of word and sense, is thus put by Rājašekhara. sabdārthayor yathāyat sahabhāvena vidyā sālutva-vidyā, an interpretation with which Kuntaka agrees. This Sahitya or alliance of word and sense is admitted as a fundamental postulate from a very early time, and with proper modifications, by all schools and authors Cf Dandin i. 10. Vāmana 1. 1. 1 (vrtti). Rudrata ii 1. Ānandavardhana admits as unquestioned: sahdarthau tāvat kāvvam, na vipratipattir iti daršavati. The view is alluded to by Māgha in ii 86b, and apparently by Kālidāsa in the first verse of Raghu°.
- 6 This distinction between Alankāras of Sabda and of Artha began to be recognised, if not directly stated, from the time of Bhāmaha. Although Daṇḍin is not explicit, he has the same distinctive view when he deals with Arthālamkāras in ch ii and Sabdālamkāras in ch. iii. It is Bhoja who classifies Alankāras into those of Sabda, of Artha or of both, defining and illustrating 24 of each in his Sarasvatī-kanṭhā.

thus: "Others regard metaphor and the like to be external ornaments. They postulate that grammatical correctness adorns speech, and call it excellence of language, (implying that) there is no such corresponding correctness of sense. We, however, accept two kinds of ornaments, referring respectively to word and sense". Dandin, who does not strictly belong to this school but who substantially agrees on this point with Bhāmaha, is more explicit in his statement, and lays down (i. 10) that the 'body' of poetry consists of a series of words regulated by an agreeable sense.

Although Bhāmaha is the oldest representative of this system whose work has survived, he was, as we have stated more than once, by no means its originator. The system, as we find it set forth in his work, is certainly not primitive, but indicates the clear existence of a developed teaching on the subject. Rājaśekhara, as we have noted (vol. i, p.1), gives us a long list of mythical names with which he identifies the original treatment of the various topics relating principally to the poetic figures. He assigns the elaboration of the poetic figures anuprāsa, yamaka and citra, śabda-ślesa, vāstava, upamā, atiśaya, artha-śleşa, and ubhayālamkāra respectively to Pracetāyana, Citrāngada, Śesa, Pulastya, Aupakāyana, Pārāśara, Utathya and Kubera. While the antiquity of the distinction between sabdālamkāra and arthālamkāra generally (in spite of the above passage of Bhāmaha's) and of śabda-śleşaland artha-ślesa in particular may be seriously doubted, some of these poetic figures may be allowed to have been very early recognised, as Bharata mentions some of them and Bhamaha acknowledges nearly all (excepting citra which we find ir Dandin and vāstava which we find in Rudrata). Medhāvin, cited by Bhāmaha, probably belonged to this school, and his is the only authentic name of an early exponent of this system.

With Bhāmaha's work, however, we emerge from the region of conjecture and doubt, and arrive at the first classic statement of a definite doctrine of Poetics. We must not yet

look to his work, nor to that of his follower Udbhata, for a thoroughly critical system. We can deduce certain broad conceptions, but the practical object, underlying the speculation of this school in general, and its more or less normative character did not allow sufficient scope for purely theoretic treatment; nor can we expect such treatment at this early Bhāmaha, therefore, nowhere attempts a formal stage. definition of poetry, nor does he state clearly the theory of Vakrokti and Alamkāra which, as we shall see, was first systematically enunciated by his follower, the Vakroktijīvitakāra. The first chapter of Bhāmaha's work gives us some preliminary remarks about the general characteristics of poetry and its subdivisions, but a large part of it is taken up with the enumeration of the general faults which obstruct the proper expression of an idea.

Bhāmaha states at the outset the purposes of poetry (kāvya-prayojana) and the qualifications of a poet (kāvyahetu), incidentally mentioning the 'sources' of poetry (kāvyayonayah). Regarding the first topic of the aim and purpose of poetry, it is not necessary to discuss the different views in detail, as they generally enumerate extraneous objects and throw little light on the general theory of poetry. In the older writers there is a more or less uncritical mention of fame (kīrti) for the poet and delight (prīti) for the reader as the chief objects of poetry; and herewith Bhāmaha (i. 2), Dandin (i. 105), Vāmana (i. 1. 5), Rudraţa (i. 21, 22) and Bhoja (i. 2), though belonging to different schools of opinion, seem to be content. But it became customary to add, from the poet's standpoint, 'wealth', 'social success' and 'escape from ills'. From the reader's point of view, poetry is said to bring 'solace', 'instruction in knowledge' and 'proficiency in the arts and ways of the world'; and these are sometimes summarily comprehended by the term trivarga, viz., profit, pleasure and

⁷ Bharata had already laid down this pleasure-giving function of the dramatic art as krīdanaka (i. 11), vinodakāraņa (i. 86).

⁸ E. g. Mammata i. 2, Hemacandra p. 2 etc.

virtue, to which later on the caturvarga, anticipated by Bhāmaha (i. 2), adds moksa or liberation of the soul. This is probably an attempt to bring poetry on a level with other arts or sciences which profess similar ends, and is in harmony with the deep-rooted idea of the functions of Sastra. is, however, pointed out by later theorists like Mammata and his followers, who in their turn develop Abhinavagupta's idea ("Locana p. 12), that the Kāvya, as distinguished from the scriptures and the sciences, is kāntā-sammita, i. e., like the teaching of a loving mistress, implying thereby that the pedagogic powers of poetry resolve themselves into a peculiar power of suggesting a condition of artistic enjoyment. The famous opening verse of the Kāvya-prakāsa makes this clear when it describes poetic speech as comprehending a creation ungoverned by nature's laws and consisting of pure joy. The caturvarga and the other material objects of poetry are mentioned in almost unbroken tradition: but with the elaboration of a full-fledged scheme of Poetics in connexion with the suggestion of Rasa, the purpose of poetry was brought into a level with the ultimate theory about its nature; and poetry was supposed to create a peculiar mood of aesthetic pleasure, conveyed generally by the philosophic term ānanda¹⁰.

⁹ Abhinava uses the terms prabhu-sammita, jāyā-sammita and mitra-sammita, which are accepted by Mammata (ed. B.S.S., 1917, p. 9). Later writers distinguish (e. g. Ekāvalī pp. 13-15) between the Vedas which are prabhu-sammita, the Itihāsa etc. which are mitra-sammita, and the Kāvya which is kāntā-sammita.

¹⁰ Abhinavagupta's comment on Bhāmaha i. 2 on this point is interesting (°Locana p. 12, partially copied by Hemacandra in his commentary, p. 3): yathoktam—dharmārtha-kāma-mokṣeṣu vaicakṣaṇ-yaṃ kalāsu ca / karoti kīrtim prītim ca sādhu-kīvya-nisevaṇam //iti, tatwīpi prītir eva pradhānam. Anyathā prabhu-sammitebhyo vedādibhyo mitra-sammitebhyaś cetihāsādibhyo vyutpatti-hetul-hyuḥ, ko'sya kāvya-rūpasya vyutpatti-hetor jāyā-sammitatva-lakṣano viṣeṣa iti prādhānycnānanda evoktaḥ. Caturvarga-vyutpatter api cānandaḥ pāryantikaṃ mukhyaṃ phalam. The essence of Rasa, which came to be considered as the most important thing in poetry, is said to consist of this prīti or ānanda; naturally ānanda or prīti became in later

Jagannātha completes the idea by defining it as a 'disinterested' or 'dissociated' (alaukika) pleasure, which depends upon a taste formed by repeated representation of beautiful objects, and which can be enjoyed by a man initiated into the poetic mysteries.

With regard to the other two questions, viz. the equipment of a poet and the sources of poetry, Bhāmaha appears to be cognisant of their importance. His remarks on these points are, however, brief as compared with those of Vamana, who deals with the subject elaborately for the first time. may be pointed out in this connexion that Sanskrit Poetics. consistently with the original idea of its having been a more or less mechanical discipline, gives a long list of the essential qualifications which a poet should possess and lays down elaborate rules for his 'education'. With the advance of the theoretical aspects of the science, this theme was, no doubt, made the object of a separate study by a group of writers who make it their business to instruct the poet in his profession; but all early writers on general Poetics, more or less, touch upon the point. We shall have occasion to deal with this school of kavi-śiksā; but it will be convenient to indicate here briefly the earlier speculations on the subject. While not denying the sugreme necessity of genius or poetic gift (satkavitva, Bhāmaha i. 4) which consists in pratibhā (poetic conception), all writers, early or late, agree in emphasising the necesssity of study and experience. Both Bhamaha (i. 5) and Dandin (i. 103-4) acknowledge pratibhā which is said to be natural (naisargikī) or inborn (sahajā); and Vāmana puts it into a formula that in pratibhā lies the seed of poetry, and defines it (i. 3, 16 Vrtti) as an antenatal capacity of the mind¹¹ without which no poetry is possible, and if possible, it is only ridiculous, a dictum which is almost literally copied by

Poetics the chief object of poetry. Mammata calls it sakala-prayojana-maulibhatam.

¹¹ janmantara-gata-samskāra-viseşaļ kascit. Daņģin describes it as pūrva-vāsanā-guņānubandhi.

Mammata who, however, uses the more general term śakti.¹² Abhinavagupta ("Locana p. 29) defines it as intelligence (prajñā), capable of fresh invention (apūrva-vastu-nirmāņakşama), its distinguishing characteristic being the capacity of creating poetry possessed of passion, clarity and beauty viśeṣo raṣāveśa-vaiśadya-saundarya-kāvya-nirmāṇaksamatvam); and in quotes the authority of Bharata (vii. 2) who designates it as the 'internal disposition' of the poet This agrees with the definition of pratibhā (antargata bhāya) as prajñā nava-navollekha-śālinī, given in a verse cited anonymously by Hemacandra, but attributed by Kşemendra (Aucitya-vicāra° ad śl. 35) to Abhinava's guru, Bhatta Tauta; and it is recognised as canonical by later writers, to whom Abhinava and Mammata were the final lawgivers, but who sometimes add that it is lokottara and capable of producing an indefinable charm variously termed vaicitrya, vicchitti. cārutva, saundarya, hrdyatva ot ramanīyatva,

While these theorists believed in pratibhā, they also believed in "making a poet into a poet," and maintained the importance of what Dandin cails śruta and abhiyoga, but what later writers call vyutpatti (culture) and abhyāsa (practice). Rudraţa, therefore, thinks that pratibhā is not only sahajā or inborn, but also utpādyā or capable of attainment by vyutpatti or culture. The poet is thus required to be an expert in a long list of sciences or arts. The earliest of such lists is given by Bhāmaha in i. 9, where mention is made of the following studies as 'sources' of poetry, viz., grammar, prosody, lexicography, stories based on ltihāsa, ways of the world, logic and and the fine arts. This substantially agrees

¹² Used by Rudrața (i. 14-15), who distinctly gives two alternative terms śakti and pratibhā and by Abhinavagupta (*Locana p. 137) who says: śaktiḥ pratibhānam, varṇanīya-vastu-viṭaya-nūtanollekha-sālitvam.

¹³ Read kāvya-yonavaļi (instead of kāvyayairvašī in the printed text), as indicated by Vāmana i. 3. 1 (kāvyāngāni) and Rājašekhara viii (kāvya-yonayah). Cf. Jacobi in op. ctt. p. 224.

with Rudrata's list (i. 18), but Vāmana deals with the topic in greater detail in i. 3. 21-22, and requires the poet to be conversant with grammar, lexicon, metrics, arts, morals, erotics, politics, and, above all, the ways and means of the world. It is also sometimes implied that the poet must have studied the theory of poetry and made himself proficient in poetical exercise (abhyāsa). He must be clever at weaving metaphors and other poetic figures, at the trick of producing a double meaning, at manipulating complicated schemes of alliteration and rhyming, at following up quick composition, at making complete verses out of broken lines and sentences, and similar ingenious practices. When a new work is published, it is submitted to and approved by assemblies of experts, as we are told by Mankhaka. Rajasekhara and others. It was obviously expected to answer all the demands of theory, although it was by no meaas an easy test; for style, says an Indian stylist, is like a woman's virtue which cannot bear the least reproach. The public likewise possessed or were expected to possess a certain amount of theoretical knowledge; for the rasika or sahrdaya, the man of taste, the true appreciators of poetry, must be, according to the conception of the Sanskrit theorists, not only well read and wise. and initiated into the intricacies of theoretic requirements, but also possessed of fine instincts of aesthetic enjoyment¹⁴. The poet naturally liked to produce an impression that he had observed all the rules, traditions and expectations of such an audience; for the ultimate test of poetry is laid down as consisting in the appreciation of the sahrdaya. Thus, the poet is required to be true to his natural gifts and yet conform to the rigid demands of theory. The art of poetry in this way came to flourish in a learned atmosphere, and the theory of Poetics, as we shall see, naturally assumed a scholastic

¹⁴ On the subject of the "education" of the poet, see F. W. Thomas, The Making of the Sanskrit Poet in Bhandurker Content-moration Volume p. 375 f

and dialectic character in common with the whole scientific literature of ancient India. It is true that a certain amount of inevitable difference is always to be found between theory and practice; and, as on the one hand, we have gifted poets aspiring to untrammelled utterance, so on the other, there is a tendency to degenerate towards a slavish adherence to rules, which naturally resulted in a strong overloading of a composition by complicated or artificial expressions.

With these general remarks we may now turn to a brief consideration of other topics in the work of Bhāmaha13. Bhāmaha rests content by taking the Kavya to consist of sabda and artha (sabdārthau sahitau kāvyam), giving equal prominence to word and sense in poetry. But he implies by his treatment that the Kavya should also be faultless (nirdoşa) and embellished by poetic figures (sālamkāra). Then follows the classification of poetry (i) according to form, into verse and prose, (ii) according to the language employed, into Sanskrit, Prakrit and Apabhramsa, (iii) according to the subjectmatter, into fourfold division, so far as it deals respectively with incidents human or divine, incidents invented by the poet's imagination, or incidents based on the several arts or sciences, (iv) according to the conventional way of grouping compositions into fivefold recognised division, viz. sargabandha (mahākāvya), abhineyārtha (drama), ākhyāyikā, kathā and anibaddha-kāvya (i. e. detached poems like gāthās or individual ślokas). Bhāmaha's definition of mahākāvya is more or less conventional, and practically agrees with that to be found in Dandin (i. 14f) and in the Agni-purana (336. 24-32). With regard to abhineyārtha, he omits its treatment because others have treated of it already. Bhāmaha lays down a somewhat hard-and-fast line of demarcation between the kathā and the ākhyāyikā, a view which is not accepted

¹⁵ Bhāmaha's work consists of six chapters: ch. i on poetry generally (60 verses), ch ii and iii on Alamkāra (160 verses), ch. iv on Doşa (50 verses), ch. v on logical correctness or Nyāya (70 verses) and ch. vi on grammatical correctness (60 verses).

by Dandin and which Vāmana does not enter into as being too fine¹⁶. With regard to the formal classification of verse and prose, it may be remarked that poetry, according to the view of Sanskrit theorists, has a twofold aspect according as it consists of verse (padya) or prose (gadya), although some authors speak of a mixed kind (miśra), e. g., the drama in which both prose and verse occur. The doctrine that prose is the opposite, not of poetry but of verse, which began to be realised rather late in European critical theories, was very early admitted without question by Sanskrit authors with whom metre does not play the same part as it does in European poetry; for in India from the earliest time, it was usual to put down even the driest teachings in a metrical form¹⁷.

Bhāmaha, however, appears (i. 31-35) to be indifferent

We have 16 Vol. i. p. 65. tried to show elsewhere (The Kathā and the Akhyūyikā in Classical Sanskrit in BSOS, vol. iii (reprinted in Some Problems, pp. 65-79) that two or three well-defined stages are distinguishable in the development of these two species of the Kavya in Classical Sanskrit, the earliest being represented by the characteristics given by Bhamaha and the latest by those given by Rudrata; and that while Bhamaha cannot be taken as having accepted Bana's two masterpieces as his prototype, Rudrața has only generalised their important features into universal definitions of the kathā and the ākhvāyikā. Lacote in his Essai sur Gunādhya et la Brhatkathā suggests (p. 282) that Dandin must have found that Gunadhya did not observe the traditional distinction between the kathā and the ākhyāyikā (e.g. in the original Brhatkathā, on Lacôte's showing p. 220, there was a narration by Najavahanadatta of his own victories, which is contrary to the rule laid down by Bhamaha). He was, therefore, led to reject it altogether. Bliamaha, no doubt, refers to a Lathā in Apabhramsa in i. 28 but it is not known whether he was aware of the existence of the Brhatkatha.

17 One need not emphasise the point that Sanskrit theorists define poetry so as to include any literary work of the imagination in its scope, and absolutely refuse to make of rhyming or versing an essential. This tradition is so well established that the question is nowhere discussed and never doubted. Thus, the theorists include under the head of poetry romances like Kādamburī or Harşa-carina which are written for the most part in prose. Vāmana even quotes a dictum which says that prose is the touchstone of the poets (gadyam-kavīnām nikaṣam vadanti, cited in Vṛtti on 1. 3. 21).

to the literary value of rīti (roughly, 'diction'), to which Dandin and his followers of the Rīti school attach so much importance. He thinks that the distinction made by the Rītitheorists between vaidarbha and gauda is meaningless; and though he does not use the terms marga (Dandin) or rīti (Vāmana), his statement would imply that he is speaking of vaidarbha- and gauda-kāvyas respectively, in which some had apparently seen differences of manner and treatment.18 As a necessary corollary apparently to this view, he does not think it worth while to devote much attention to the gunas, which the Riti-theorists take as forming the constituent excellences of *iiti*, and summarily mentions in another context (ii. 1-3) only three Gunas, viz., mādhurya, ojas and prasāda, apparently rejecting Bharata's ten orthodox excellences. He does not, however, connect them directly with the Rīti, and thinks that they are distinguished according to the presence or absence, in varying degrees, of compound words, oias employing long compounds, and madhurya and prasada not doing it. These Gunas, in his opinion, are not qualities of any particular diction, but of the good Kavya generally. It is noteworthy that this brief description of the Gunas precedes in context the treatment of Alamkaras, implying probably that they are analogous to each other. It is also noteworthy that Bhāmaha does not employ the term Guna at all, except in another context in connexion with the Bhavika Alamkara which he, like Dandin, designates as a prabandha-guna.

Bhāmaha then proceeds to define and discuss, with illustrations, the poetic figures or alamkāras, to which he devotes two long chapters (ii. 4-95, iii. 1-56), consisting of nearly one hundred and fifty verses. Then come (ch. iv) the dosas or demerits of composition (some of which are already dealt with in i. 37-56), and the whole subject is wound up

¹⁸ As each of these types have certain distinguishing features. Phāmaha is of opinion that one need not condemn Gauda nor praise the Vaidarbha; but he himself does not deal with these types which must have been well known in his time.

with two chapters (v-vi) on the logical¹⁰ and grammatical²⁰ correctness of poetry respectively. Now leaving aside these two requirements and the Dosas, all of which are in a sense negative requirements, the only thing of the highest importance in poetry, in Bhāmaha's view, is apparently the Alamkara or the poetic figure, which takes up the bulk of his treatment 21 Bhāmaha attempts to classify poetic expression into fixed rhetorical categories, and from this point of view his work possesses the general appearance of a technical manual, comprising a collection of definitions with illustrations and empirical canons for the benefit of the artist desirous of externalising his ideas. But in the course of his enquiry, it probably struck him that a philosophical or scientific classification of expressions is not possible; for, although every single expressive fact may be grouped together generically, the continuous variation of the individual content results in an irreducible variety of expressive facts. attempts, therefore, to arrive at a synthesis by holding that there may be modes or grades of expression, of which the best mode is that which involves vakrokti²², by which a certain peculiarity or charm of expression is posited as the essential principle of all Alamk āras.

- 19 In which are discussed such Nyāya-vaišesika topics as the pramāņa, prajāā, hetu, drsļānta etc.
- 20 Giving practical hints for attaining grammatical correctness (sauśab·lya), and corresponding to the last adiukarana of Vamana's work.
- 21 Excluding subvarieties the Alamkāras mentioned or defined by Bhāmaha are 39 (+4) in number, viz. in this order, anuprāsa (two varieties), yamaka (five kinds), rāpaka (two varieties), dipaka, upamā, pratīvastūpamā (as a variety of upamā), āksepa (two kinds), arthāntara-nvāsa, vvatireka, vibliūvanā, samāsoku atīšayoku, yathāsamkhya, utprekṣā, svabhāvokti, pieyas, rasavat, ūrjasvi, paryāyokta, samāhita, udātta (2 kinds), ślista, apahnuti, viseşokti, virodha, tulya-yogitā, aprastuta-prašamsā vyāja-stuti, nidaršanā, upamā-rūpaka, upameyopamā, sahokti, parīvītti, sasamdeha, ananvaya, utpreksāvayava, samsīrīti, bhāvika, ūtīh (according to some), as well as hetu, sūkṣma leia and vūrtītā (to which the status of Alamkāra is denied).
 - 22 It is true that in one place Bhamaha speaks of the figure

The etymological meaning of the term vakrokti is "crooked speech"; and this meaning appears in the verbal poetic figure defined by Rudrata (ii. 13-17) and, after him, by all later theorists, who connote by this figure a kind of pretended speech based on paronomasia (slesa) or peculiarities of intonation (kāku). In Vāmana, on the other hand, vakrokti appears not as verbal figure (śabdālaṃkāra) but as a figure based on the sense (arthalamkara); and it is defined as a metaphorical mode of speech based on "transference of sense" (lakşaṇā). Bhāmaha, while admitting it, apparently in common with Dandin (ii. 363), as a collective designation of all Alamkaras²³ uses the term to imply a selection of words and turning of ideas peculiar to poetry and abhorrent of matter-of-fact speech. Kuntaka, who develops this idea and builds a unique theory of alamkāra on its basis, makes this meaning clear when he indicates by such vakratā the peculiar charm (vicchitti) or strikingness (vaicitrya) which can be imparted to ordinary expression by the conception of the poet (kavipratibhā). When words are used in the ordinary manner of common parlance, as people without a poetic turn of mind use them, there is no special charm, no strikingness; and

bhāvika as the characteristic excellence of a composition as a whole, a view which coincides with that of Dandin, as well as of Bhatti who (according to commentators) illustrates this figure in one whole canto (canto xii). It is defined as the representation of objects, whether past or future, as if they were present, the condition of the representation being that the story or theme must have picturesque, strange and exalted meaning '(citrodāttādbhutāthatvam kathāyāh) and must be capable of being enacted well (svabhinītatā), and that the words used must be agreeable (śabdānukulatā). Bhāmaha, however, does not appear to lay any special emphasis on bhāvikatva in Poetry, but deals with it as he does with any other poetic figure. No doubt, he speaks of bhāvika as a prabandha-guṇa, but Bhāmaha does not seem to have made any theoretical distinction between Guṇa and Alamkāra as such, and the word guṇa here should not be taken in any technical sense.

²³ On this subject, see S. K. De, introd. to Kuntaka's Vakrokti-fivita, 2nd Ed. pp. xiv-xxv.

consequently it is not poetical in the sense in which Bhāmaha and his follower understand it. Such svabhāvokti or 'natural' mode of speech, which Daṇḍin calls ādyā alaṃkṛti and distinguishes from vakrokti, is not acceptable to Bhāmaha²¹ and to Kuntaka, who refuse to acknowledge svabhāvokti as a poetic figure at all; for these theorists apparently imply a distinction between the "artistic", or ornamental or extraordinary, on the one hand, and the "naturalistic", or unadorned or ordinary expression, on the other²⁵.

- 24 See Jacobi in ZDMG lxiv 130 1, and in Sh der preuss. Alead. xxiv, 1922, pp. 2241. Kuntaka diso uses the term vakrokti as almost co-extensive with the term alamkara (p. xxx), and regards the so-called poetic figures as aspects of vakrokti.—Bhāmaha does not, as Kuntaka does, elaborately argue against Svabhāvokti; he acknowledges it, but the terms by which he refers to it (ii. 93-94) would make one think that it is not as acceptable to him as it is to Dandin. Dandin would divide Vānmaya into Svabhāvokti and Vakrokti, the latter including in its scope all the poetic figures. Bhoja (Sarasvatī-k) would divide Vānmaya into Svabhāvokti, Vakrokti, and Rasokti.
- Kuntaka, svabhāvokti, which consists in 25 To Bhāmaha and a description of the natural disposition (svabhava) of an object, is obviously wanting in the requisite strikingness to be poetical; for they take it to be merely plain or unadorned description and imply that a poet should express things or ideas differently from the banality or prosiness of the Sastras or of common life. But Dandin and later theorists, on the contrary, reckon jūti or svabhūvokti among the poetic figures. On this point we quote what we said elsewhere (Introd. to Vakrokti-ūvita, p. xix, in 19). "Though formally the expression of the stabhevokte may not differ from a statement or description in common life there is still a substantial difference For the poet sees or conceives the very same thing not in the same way as common people. In the case of the latter, all things stand in some relation to his personal interests, which should be understood to connote also scientific interest in them as objects of knowledge. But for the poet the object has no connexion with his or anybody's interests, not even as an object of knowledge; he has a vision of the thing in itself in its true nature. This is what is partially understood by lokātikrānta-gocaratā, and Jagannātha makes it clear (ed. Bombay, 1915, p. 4) while explaining the term lokottaratva as an element of poetic charm. Literally lokottara means supermundane, but in the sense indicated above it may be translated roughly as 'disinterested' or 'dissociated'. Now, Dandin, adopting the traditional term alamkara and applying it to the svabhuvokti, could not very

Bhāmaha, therefore, lays down, in his classification of the different kinds of Kavya, that the subdivisions of poetry mentioned by him are admissible to that designation in so far as they possess vakrokti (1.30); and this is made more explicit by declaring later on that whatever value might be attached to the function of Rīu in poetry, the vakrokti is desirable as an embellishment of poetic speech (i. 36), which he characterises elsewhere as vakrā (vi. 23). Therefore he calls upon the poet to be diligent in accomplishing this, as the vakrokti manifests the sense of poetry and as no embellishment of poetry is possible without vakrokti (ii. 85). It is not surprising, therefore, that he rejects figures like hetu, sūkşma and leśa on the ground that they do not involve vakrokti.

It is curious, however, that Bhāmaha nowhere explicitly defines or explains the word vakrokti. Perhaps here we have the work of early theorisers who have not yet learnt to theorise systematically, but who are carried away more or less by their practical object of establishing definite norms and prescribing general formulas as a means of attaining literary expression. Or, perhaps the idea of vakrokti was traditional or already too well known in his time to require detailed explanation. At any rate, after enumerating and defining the poetic figures up to and including atisayokti, he says generally saisā sarvaiva vakroktiņ (ii. 85), with a hint (as it appears from the context) of identifying the vakrokti in substance with the idea involved in atisayokti. Kuntaka appears

well accept Blamaha's statement that valratā is the characteristic of all poetic figures, because vakrokti excludes the svabhāvokti (Dandin ii. 362); but he tries to reconcile his own view with Bhāmaha's opinion by extending the latter's remarks regarding the atisavokti (ii. 81) to all poetic figures, thus including the svabhāvokti. The Indian theorists have almost neglected an important part of their task, viz., to find a definition of the nature of the subject of a poem as the product of the poet's mind, this problem is the main issue of Western Aesthetics. Only svabhāvokti and bhāvika can be adduced as a proof that the Indian theorists were conscious of the problem, but did not attack it in its entirety, treating it only in some of its aspects". See also, on this point, Jacobi in Sb. der preuss. Akai, cited above, pp. 224 f.

to agree with Bhamaha that some kind of atisaya is involved in vakrokti, and thinks that the atisaya is a necessary element in what he calls vicitra-marga, where vakrokti vaicitrya prevails (i. 27). Dandin probably arrives at the same conclusion in a different way when he speaks of all poetic figures as depending on atisayokti, a view which is explained thus by one of his commentators: alamkārāntarānām api esa (=atiśayoktyalamkāruh) upakārī bhavatī, atīšava-jananatvam vinā bhūsanatayā na syād ity abhiprāvah. Ānandavardhana's remarks in this connexion are illuminating. He says that it is possible to include atisava in all poetic figures, as it has been successfully done by great poets, for the purpose of increasing the beauty of poetic composition; and citing Bhamaha's idea ot atisavokti and vakrokti he remarks (pp. 208)26: is an excellence of charm in that poetic figure in which the atisayokti is established by the imagination of the poet; other figures are merely so called. Since it is able to enter into the body or composition of all poetic figures, it is, by assuming it to be identical with them, called their essence'. atisayokti, therefore, is taken, in the words of Abhinavagupta's explanation, as the common token or generic property of all poetic sigures (sarvolamkāra-sāmān) a-rūpam), or as Mammta puts it, as their life-breath or essence (pranatvenavatisthate, v. 743). One can realise from this the close connexion between this important figure and Bhamaha's notion of vakrokti.

Bhāmaha defines atišayokti as nimittato vaco yat tu lokātikrānta-gocaram (ii. 81), which Daņḍin paraphrases as vivakṣā yā viśeṣasya loka-sīmātivartinī (ii. 214). It would seem, therefore, that the atišaya in the vakratā of poetic figures consists essentially in this lokātikrānta-gocaratā, and Abhinava makes this clear when he explains in this connexion (*Locana p. 208): śabdasya hi vakratā abhidheyasya ca vakra-

²⁶ tatrātišayoktir yam alaņkāram adhitisthatī kavi-pratibhā-vašāt tasya cārutvātišaya-yogah, anyasya tvalaņkāra-mātrataiveti Sarvālaņ-kāra-śarīra-svīkaraņa-yogyotvenībhedopacārāt saīva sarvālaņkāra-rūpety ayam evārtho'vagantavyah.

tā lokottīrņena rūpeņāvasthānam. From this it is reasonable to conclude that by vakratā Bhāma ha implies a kind of heightened or extraordinary turn given to expression (what Kuntaka would call bhangī or vicchitti), which constitutes the charm or strikingness of poetic expression, as distinguished from common speech where facts are simply stated. We shall see that Kuntaka elaborates this idea by the peculiar theory of vaicitrya or vicchitti (which is taken as almost equivalent to the term vakratā) of word and sense as forming the basis of all poetic decoration (the so-called poetic figures being mere aspects of it), whereby the poet lifts ordinary speech to the level of extraordinary poetic utterance.

As a necessary corollary from the prominence given to vakrokti or alamkāra in poetry by this system, it follows that ideas of Rasa should be included in the scope of particular poetic figures. We shall see that Bhamaha actually assigns this function to the particular figure rasavat, and if we are to accept Udbhata's position as indicative of that of Bhamaha, also to the figures preyas and ūrjasvin. By putting a technical interpretation on the word vibhāvyate in Bhāmaha ii. 85. Abhinavagupta attempts to make out that Rasa as well as Alamkāra originates in vakrokti; but this is probably an instance of the not-unusual but rather far-fetched ingenuity of the commentator. Regarding vyangyārtha or dhvani, the "suggested sense", which plays such an important part in later theories. Bhamaha nowhere expressly alludes to this idea; but we can never dogmatically affirm that some kind of suggested sense was not known to him. He defines figures like paryāyokta, vyāja-stuti, aprastuta-prašamsā and samāsokti. in all of which there is an indication of an implied sense. The paryayokta, for instance, is defined as paryayoktam yad anyena prakārenābhidhīyate (iii, 8), and Udbhaţa expands this with vācya-vācaka-vrttibhyām śūnyenāvagamātmanā, in which there is a clear indication of an avagamyamana artha?'. This

²⁷ Cf. Ruyyaka's remarks on this figure. See also Bhāmaha's definition of samāsokti. ii. 79.

is also apparent from the criticism of Anandavardhana, who does not agree, however, that in Bhamaha's paryayokta there is a predominance of the suggested sense, inasmuch as the expressed sense is not intended there to be merely subservient (pp. 39-40) In another place (p. 108). Anandavardhana further remarks that Udbhata has shown in detail that expressed poetic figures like rūpaka can sometimes be a suggested element, a case of what is explained by Dhvanitheorists as alamkāra dhvani. Thus, in the opinion of the great exponent of the dhvani-theory himself. Bhamaha as well as Udbhața (cf "Locana p. 10) is not an abhāva-vādin or one who denies the existence of dhvani (as Mallinatha, p. 24, wrongly considers him to be), but an antarbhava-vadin who includes the idea of dhvani in other elements of poetry. Discussing this point, Pratihārendurāja appears to agree with Anandavardhana; for, in his opinion, the divani, which is considered by some school to be the 'soul' of poetry. is not separately dealt with by these early writers because they include it in poetic figures (p. 79). In the same way. Jagannatha (pp. 414-15) remarks that although Udbhata and others, who were earlier than the author of the Dhvanisystem, never use the term dhvani, it is yet unreasonable to hold on that ground that the concept of dhvani was unknown to them, because they indicate some of its aspects in their definitions of figures like paryāyokta, samāsokti, vyāja-stuti and aprastuta-prasamsā. To the same effect is the general statement of Ruyyaka (p. 3), who says that Bhamaha, Udbhata and other ancient writers would comprehend the suggested sense in the Alamkara as an adornment of the expressed sense; in other words, they do not take it independently but as an accessory to the expressed sense, in the same way as they take Rasa as an accessory element. Following perhaps the tradition of Bhāmaha's paryāyokta, the younger Vägbhata defines (pp. 36-37) the figure as dhvanitābhidhānam, and refers the curious reader to the treatise of Anandavardhana for a detailed treatment of dhvanitokti; while Hemacandra defines (p. 263) it more briefly as vyangyasyoktih. In all this, one can perceive an attempt to read the idea of dhvani into older authors like Bhāmaha and Udbhaṭa and thus to find an orthodox authority for it from an early time; but it is not unlikely that the general notion of a suggested sense, like the general notion of Rasa, was not unknown to these ancient authors, although it was only naively understood and never independently treated, being uncritically included as an element of some poetic figures.

(2) UDBHAŢA

The only writer of later times who develops Bhāmaha's notion of vakrokti is Kuntaka, the author of the Vakrokti-jīvita; but for this exposition, it disappears from the writings of this school. Udbhaṭa, one of the earliest avowed followers of Bhāmaha, nowhere mentions it, although it is quite possible that we would have got a much more comprehensive idea of Udbhaṭa's standpoint from his lost Bhāmaha-vivaraṇa or Kāvyālaṃkāra-vivṛti²* than from his existing brief compendium of poetic figures. His Alaṃkāra-saṃgraha, as its name implies, consists merely of a collection of verses defining forty-one poetic figures (including three varieties of anuprāsa), and we are left absolutely in the dark regarding his views on general problems.

In his treatment of these poetic figures, Udbhaţa follows

28 See vol. i. p. 46. The six chapters of Udbhaţa's existing work deal exclusively with the poetic figures in the following order and divisions: I. punaruktavad-ābhāsa. chekānuprāsa, vṛttynuprāsa (with three vṛttis), laṭānuprāsa, rūpaka, dīpuka (3 kinds), upamā, prativastūpamā. II. āksepa, arthāntara-nyūsa, vyatireka, vibhāvanā, samāsokti, atiśayokti (4 kinds). III. yathāsaṃkhya, utprekṣā, svabhāvokti. IV. prevasvat, rasavat, ūrjasvin, paryāyokta, samāhita, udātta (2 kinds), śleṣa. V. apahnuti, višeṣokti, virodha, tulyayogitā, aprastuta-prasaṃsā, vyūja-stuti, vidarśanā, saṃkara (4 kinds), upameyopamā, zahokti, parivṛtti. Vl. sasamdeha, ananvaya, saṃṣṛṣṭi, bhāvika, kāvyalinga (hetu) and kāvya-dṛṣṭānta (dṛṣṭānta).

Bhamaha very closely, enumerating the figures in the same order and even borrowing literally the definitions of a large In the case of a few particular poetic number of them. figures, however, Udbhata enters into distinctions which were probably unknown to Bhāmaha. Thus, he speaks of four forms of the atisayokti, which Bhamaha does not mention, but which agree substantially with the four out of the five varieties of that figure recognised by later writers. Bhāmaha spoke (ii. 6-8) of only two kinds of anuprāsa, viz.. grāmyānuprāsa and lātīyānuprāsa, which classification, Pratīhārendurāja thinks, is based on a tacit admission of the two Vittis, viz. grāmyā and upanāgarikā. Udbhata, on the other hand, distinguishes three varieties of anuprāsa, called chekānuprāsa, lājānuprāsa and vrttyanuprāsa, the last of which appears to be classified again on the basis of the three Vrttis, viz., grāmyā (or komalā), parusā and upanāgarikā. These Vrttis, which consist primarily of suitable sound-adjustment with a view to alliteration, appear to have been first recognised, as Abhinavagupta points out, by Udbhata, and from him known to Anandavardhana (pp. 5-6). We shall see presently that Rudrata mentions five Vrttis (ii. 19 f); but we find Udbhata's views accepted by later theorists like Mammata and Ruyyaka who, however, consider the whole question from the point of view of Rasa. Again, the grammatical basis of the divisions of upamā (of which there is only a hint in Bhāmaha ii. 31-33) first appears in Udbhata (i. 35-40) in a form which establishes itself in later theory. It is true that Udbhata does not in the present treatise devote, as Bhāmaha does, a special chapter to the question of grammatical correctness, nor does he allude to the theories regarding functions of words already hinted at by Bhamaha (vi. 6f), yet in deference to the grammatical analysis of speech, he discusses at some length the various

²⁹ These Vettis refer primarily to anuprāsa (alliteration, or sound arrangement of letters), and has nothing to do with the four dramatic Vettis mentioned by Bharata (vi. 25, xx. 24f).

subdivisions of *upamā*, due to suffixes like *vat*, *kyac*, *kyaň*, *kvip*, *kalpap* and the like, indicative of resemblance; and this analysis became almost standardised in later literature.

Regarding definitions of individual figures. minor differences, as well as further elaboration, are noticeable. Udbhata's tulyayogitā corresponds to that of Mammata, but Bhāmaha's figure of the same name is perhaps equivalent to The figures dṛṣṭānta and kāvya-linga Mammata's dipaka. (also called kāvya-dṛṣṭānta and kāvya-hetu respectively) are omitted by Bhamaha, but defined and illustrated by Udbhata But Udbhața is the only older writer who for the first time. entirely omits the treatment of yamaka. Again, Bhāmaha recognises steşa involved in sahokti, upamā and hetu, and Dandin speaks of slesa as coming in and increasing the charm of all figures. But the well-known controversy regarding the division of slesa into sabda-slesa and arthaslesa, together with the question of its relations to other poetic figures in which it may appear, seems to have started, as Ruyyaka notes, from Udbhata's time; and Udbhata declares that in cases of combination, the ślesa is stronger than the other figures to the extent even of dispelling their apprehension. We shall also see that Udbhata is certainly more advanced in recognising Rasa and defining its place in the poetic figures, if not in poetry as a whole; and he even goes so far as using the technical terms bhava and anubhava. which cannot be traced in Bhāmaha. The samsṛṣṭi of two or more independent poetic figures is found indeed in Bhamaha and Bhatti (as also in Dandin and Vāmana), but Udbhata does not refer to the two cases of such samsrsti mentioned by Dandin (ii. 360) and distinguishes it definitely from samkara (pp. 63 and 72), of which he mentions four cases²⁰.

30 Vāmana gives the saṃsrṣṭi a limited scope, recognising only two varieties, upamā-rūpaka and utprekṣāvayava, in opposition to Daṇḍin ii. 258-60. Daṇḍin does not mention saṃkara. Possibly Daṇḍin's aṅgāngibhāva-saṃsthāna variety of saṃsṛṣṭi comes, as Pratīhārendu indicates, under Udbhata's anugrāhyānugrāhaka variety of saṃkara.

All this, however, means an advance, and not a deviation: it indicates an aspect of the growth of scholastic activity, which delighted in indulging in fine distinctions and minute classifications, and not a departure from the original standpoint. To later writers, however, it is not Bhamaha but Udbhata who is the authoritative exponent of this system and whose views are entitled to great respect from all schools of opinion. Bhamaha indeed commands veneration due to his antiquity; but he was, in course of time, eclipsed by his commentator, and later theorists turn Udbhata's work as embodying the standard opinions on the subject. We have the testimony of Anandavardhana. Abhinavagupta and Ruyyaka that some of the later speculations and controversies (e.g. those regarding upamā-divisions, or slesa) started from Udbhata's time; and Udbhata (as also Dandin and Rudrata) probably showed the way to minute analysis and differentiation of poetic figures, which play such an important part in later theories. We can understand what influence Udbhata's teachings exerted in this respect when we bear in mind that they guided very considerably the enquiries of two important later lawgivers in Poetics, Mammata and Ruyyaka, who fixed for the last time the definitions of most figures, analysed and arranged them on some general principle, and systematised their underlying doctrine. though Kuntaka elaborated one part of Bhāmaha's teaching which he took as the basis of his own peculiar system of vakrokti, it was Udbhata who properly carried on Bhāmaha's tradition and gave a systematic exposition of his work. Along with his contemporary Vamana, Udbhata may be taken without exaggeration to have been the founder of the Kashmirian school of Poetics which produced its finest fruit in Anandavardhana; for Udbhata in Kashmir established the alamkāra-doctrine in Poetics at a time when Vāmana was skilfully constructing a theory of rīti on the basis apparently of Dandin's teachings, and both of them prepared the way for Anandavardhana.

Pratīhārendurāja's interpretation of Udbhata is not always reliable as an indication of Udbhata's standpoint, for the commentator flourished a little over a century later than the text-writer and frequently reads his own notions into the text. For instance, Udbhata can be taken, as we have seen, to have been cognisant of a suggested sense, though he never speaks of dhvani or deals with it directly; but Pratibarenduraia refers to it in clearest terms and attempts by forced interpretation to make out that Udbhata deliberately included it in the treatment of poetic figures. There is no doubt, again, that Pratīhārendurāja was a great deal influenced by the views Discussing the mutual of the Rīti school of Vāmana. relation of guna and alamkāra (pp. 75 f). Pratīhārendurāja not only cites Vāmana but closely follows his exposition. To Bhamaha, the distinction between guna and alamkara was bardly of any theoretic importance, and Udbhata appears to have been of the same opinion; for Ruyyaka distinctly states udbhatādibhis tu guṇālamkārāṇām prāyasah sāmyam eva sūcitam (p. 7), and Hemacandra adds in the same way: tasmād gadarikā-pravāheņa guņālanikāra-bheda iti bhāmaha-vivaraņe... bhattodbhato'bhyadhāt (p. 17). Vāmana, on the other hand, putting greater stress on rīti elaborately distinguishes between the gunas and the alamkāras; and Pratīhārendurāja apparently reads Vāmana's views into Udbhata. Udbhata omits all mention of rīti which Bhāmaha had only referred to in passing; but Udbhata speaks of three vrttis, which are connected in particular with the figure anuprasa but which correspond roughly to the three rītis of Vāmana, and like the latter, again, to the three gunas recognised by Anandavardhana and his followers.31 But even then it cannot be said that Udbhata's vrttis cover the same ground or possess the same functional value as the three ritis of Vamana or the three gunas of Anandavardhana. Udbhata, according to Abhinavagupta (p. 134), regards the gunas, again, as the properties of

³¹ rīter hi guņeşveva paryavasāyitā, * Locana p. 231.

saṃghaṭanā, but this saṃghaṭanā cannot be taken as equivalent to Vāmana's rīti³². In the same way, Pratīhārendurāja speaks of rasa as the 'soul' of poetry (p. 77), although there is nothing to warrant the supposition that Udbhaṭa, fully aware as he appears to be of the importance of this element, would regard it as anything but a subservient factor in some special poetic figures.³³

(3)

RUDRATA

Although influenced considerably by the Rasa-doctrine, Rudrața belongs properly to the Alamkāra school. He recognises the Rasas and devotes two fairly long chapters to it; but, as we shall see later on, the function he assigns to Rasa is more or less extraneous. On the other hand, what

- 32 Ānandavardhana speaks of samghatanā as threefold, viz., a-samāsā, dīrgha-samāsā and madnyama-samāsā, according as there is the presence or absence, in varying degrees, of compound words. Each of these is suited, though not invariably, to a particular Rasa. But he thinks that the Guṇas are not of the nature of samghaṭanā, nor are they dependent upon saṃghaṭanā, but that the appropriateness of the saṃghaṭanā is determined by the Rasa and by the speaker and the subject (pp. 133-5). See Jacobi in ZDMG, Ivi, 1902. p. 779, fn 6, and S. K. De, Ānandavardhana on saṃghaṭanā in Some Problems pp. 91-94.
- 33 This point will be discussed in ch. iv below. Rājasekhara attributes some other doctrines to Udbhata and his school (audbhatāḥ), which cannot be traced in Udbhata's existing work: (1) that a sentence has a threefold denotation (vākyasya tridhābhidhā-vyāpāra iti audbhaṭāḥ), (2) that artha is of two kinds, viz., vicārita-sustha and avicārita-ramaṇīya, the first found in the Sāstras and the second in Kāvyas. The Vyaktīvīveka-vyākhyāna attributes a similarly untraceable Siddhānta at p. 4. Such citations or association of earlier authoritative names with a particular view may be merely pājārtha, which is not an unusual procedure with later commentators, as Sukthankar in ZDMG lavi, 1912 discusses. Pratīhārendurāja, for instance, attributes a strange opinion to Bharata that grammatical works and the like do not deserve the name of poetiy because they are not acceptable as such in the absence of the necessary Guṇas.

he appears to consider as important in poetry is the alamkāra or poetic figure, to which he devotes ten chapters which form indeed the bulk of his work. His work itself is named Kāvyālamkāra, apparently after the works of Bhāmaha and Udbhaṭa, and is so designated, as his commentator Namisādhu admits (on i. 2), from the undoubted emphasis laid on kāvyālamkāras or poetic figures as elements of poetry.

Rudrata, like other writers of this school, does not seem to attach much importance to the Rīti or its constituent Gunas. He speaks, no doubt, of four Rītis (and not two, after Dandin, or three, after Vamana) viz., pāñcālī, lāţīyā, gaudīyā and vaidarbhī; but in his exposition he is not influenced by the views of the Riti school. The classification of 'diction', he thinks, depends on the presence in varying degrees of short (laghu), middling (madhya) and long (āyaia) compound words, or on their entire absence as in the case of the Vaidarbhī which is, apparently for this reason, considered to be the best type. Bhāmaha, we have seen, adopts a similar principle of classification, not with regard to the Riti but to the three Gunas admitted by himself. The notion of Rīti, therefore, belongs, in Rudrata's opinion, altogether to the province of sabda, governed by fixed rules of verbal arrangement, or rather, of using compounds, and is therefore called the samāsavatī vrtti of śabda. Rudrata does not speak of dhvani. nor does he appear to have been cognisant of its function; but he implies a suggested sense (as also Bhāmaha and Udbhata do) ancillary to the expressed sense in a limited number of poetic figures, e.g., in figures like paryaya or paryāyokta and in the figure bhāva vii. 38-41.31

34 The two illustrations that Rudraţa gives under the figure are quoted in the Kāvya-prakāśa, and in the Locana p. 45. Abhinava distinctly refers to Rudraţa's bhāvālaṃkūra as a case in which the vyaṅgya sense is subordinate. Abhinava thinks that Udbhaṭa would take bhāvālaṃkūra as preyas (pp. 71-72). It is remarkable that Ruyyaka, in his review of Rudraṭa's opinion on this point, states that Rudraṭa admits the three kinds of suggestion mentioned by the Dhvani-theorists. He says that Rudrata implies vastu-dhvani in the figure bhāva;

Rudrata's detailed treatment of the poetic figures or alamkāras, however, is the distinguishing feature of his work and indeed justifies its title. It is not only elaborate and exhaustive, but also presents considerable difference of method and treatment, which distinguishes him from other earlier writers of this school, and which may lend plausibility to the supposition that he is not only later in time but is also probably following a tradition other than that of Bhāmaha and his followers. To Udbhata's limited number of poetic figures Rudrata adds nearly thirty more independent figures³⁵, besides enumerating several subvarieties of most of the important ones, and devoting an entire chapter to citra (already discussed by Dandin). Udbhata (not to speak of Bhāmaha and Bharata) nowhere treats clearly of the distinction between ideal and verbal figures (i. e. figures relating to word and sense respectively), although such a distinction is implied by

alamkūra-dhvani in rūnaka etc., rasa-dhvani in rasavat and preyas. But it may be pointed out that excepting what is stated with regard to vastu-dhvani being traceable in Rudraţa's bhūva, the remark does not apply Rudrata does not mention, define or otherwise deal with the figures rasavat, prevas etc., nor does he speak of pratīyamūnā utpreksū referred to by Ruyyaka in this connexion (although he gives an example of implied utpreksū in ix. 13). See on this point Jacobi in ZDMG lxii, 1908, p. 295 fn 5.

35 The number in Udhhata is 41, in Rudrata 68 (excluding subvarieties). The sixteen chapters in Rudrata deal with the following subjects: (I) the purpose and object of poetry, the qualifications of a poet etc. (II) the four rites (pāñcālī, lātīvā, gaudīyā and vaidarbhī). the six bhūsās (Prakrit, Sanskrit, Māgadha, Piśāca, Saurasenī Apabhramsa), and five alamkāras of sabda, of which vakroku and anuprūsa are here treated, along with five Vrttis of anuprūsa. (III) yamaka. (IV) slesa and its eight varieties, (V) citra, (VI) śabda-dosas, including dosas of pada and vūkya. (VII) four bases of arthūlamkāra (vūstava, aupamya, atisaya and slesa), and 23 figures based on vāstava. (VIII) 21 figures based on aupamya. (IX) 12 figures based on atisaya. (X) 12 figures based on slesa, suddha and samkirna. (IX) nine dosas of artha, and four upamā-doşas. (XII) ten rasas, and treatment of śrngūra. (XIII) sambhoga-srngura etc. (XIV) vipralambha-srngura, and the upūyas. (XV) characteristics of other rasas. (XVI) kinds of poetic composition, such as kathā and ākhyāyikā and their characteristics.

his treatment of four sabdulamkāras first, followed by an exposition of the arthālamkāras. Dandin also implies a similar distinction by a similar separate treatment without expressly stating it. Rudrața, on the other hand, classifies the figures. like Vāmana, clearly into two groups according as relative prominence is given to śabda and artha. He also gives us for the first time a basis or principle of arranging the individual figures in groups in respect of their general nature or characteristic. The sabdālamkāras are arranged under five broad heads, viz., vakrokti (equivocation), śleşa (paronomasia), citra (tricks of pictorial effects, like conundrum etc.), anuprāsa (alliteration) and yamaka (repetition of sounds or rhyming); while the arthulamkuras are classified on a principle of his own, viz., under vāstava (reality). aupamya (comparison), atisaya (elevatedness) and slesa (coalescence)36. The figures mentioned under arthālamkāras are: (1) VĀSTAVA. Sahokti. samuccaya, jāti, yathāsamkhyā, bhāva, paryāya, visama, anumāna, dīpaka, parikara, parivrtti, parisamkhyā, hetu, kāranamālā, vyatireka, anyonya, uttara, sāra, sūksma, leśu, avasara. milita and ekāvalī (23 figures), (2) AUPAMYA. Upamā, utpreksā, rūpaka, apahnuti, samsaya, samāsokti mata, uttara, anyokti, pratīpa, arthāntara-nyāsa, ubhaya-nyāsa, bhrāntimat, āksepa, pratyanīka, drstānta, pūrva, sahokti, samuccaya, sāmya and smarana (21 figures). (3) ATISAYA. Pūrva, višesa, utpreksā, vibhāvanā, tadguņa, adhika, virodha, visama, asamgati. pihita, vyāghāta and hetu (12 figures). (4) \$LESA. kinds-śuddha and samkirna, the former subdivided into aviśesa, virodha, adhika, vakra, vyāja, ukti. asambhaya. avayava, tattva and virodhābhāsa, and the latter comprising two varieties (10 + 2 = 12 figures).

³⁶ Vāmana had already taken aupamya as the basis of his classification, for he would regard all figures as upamā-prapaāca, implying that all figurative expression forms nothing more than aspects of metaphorical expression. Rudrața, however, thinks that all figures do not imply comparison; and in this he is in agreement with all writers excepting Vāmana who is unique in his extreme view.

Dandin, who himself enumerates a very large number of poetic figures³⁷, very sagely remarks that if for some slight disterence, a disserent figure is to be defined, there would be hardly any end to their infinite multiplication. This remark partly applies to Rudrata whose general scheme, as well as particular definitions, is open to such an obvious objection. One of the curious results of rigorously following this classification is that the same figure reappears as an alamkūra under different groups. Thus sahokti and samuccaya have two aspects, based respectively on vāstava and aupamya, while the figure utprekşā appears similarly under aupamya and atisaya respectively. Some of Rudrața's figures have been abandoned by later writers, while some have changed their names or have been modified**, later speculation inclining rather towards the more orthodox expositions of Udbhata or even of Dandin; yet the general merit of Rudrata's analysis and definitions, testified to by the more or less implicit acceptance by later theorists like Mammatass, cannot be denied. They indicate not only a considerable advance in scholastic activity on Bhamaha and Udbhata, but also remarkable independence, and consequent divergence of treatment in several notable cases.

Taking the verbal figures, Rudrața's vakrokti, based on paronomasia (śleşa) and intonation (kaku), has nothing in common with that of his predecessors. The intonational vakrokti is indeed not accepted by some of his successors

³⁷ Viz. 35 in ch. ii. and yamaka, citra and prahelikā in ch. iii. 38 E.g., Rudraţa's bhāva, maia. sāmya and pihita are not defined by later writers (excepting Vāgbhaṭa in his Kāvyānuśāsana), while his hetu is not admitted by Mammata. Rudraṭa's avasara and pūrva (mentioned by the younger Vāgbhaṭa) appear to be the same as the second variety of Mammaṭa's (and Udbhaṭa's) udūtta and the fourth variety of Mammaṭa's atisayokti respectively.

³⁹ Mammața's indebtedness to Rudrața is discussed by Sukthankar in ZDMG, lxvi, 1912, p 478, as well as in many places in Nobel's Beitrige already cited. Ruyyaka, on the other hand, while drawing largely on Mammața himself, is more indebted to Udbhata.

(e.g. Rājaśckhara p. 31 and Hemacandra p. 234), inasmuch as it is supposed to depend on mere peculiarities of reading (pātha-dharmatvāt): but on the whole, Rudrata's definition of the figure replaced that of Vamana's metaphorical vakrokti, survived Kuntaka's broader interpretation of vakrokti, and established itself as the only recognised figure of that name in later literature from Mammata onwards. Again, Rudrata's classification of anuprāsa is somewhat different from that of Udbhata, the former basing it on the five vritis of letters (varna), viz., madhurā, paruşā, praudhā, lalitā and bhadrā, and the latter admitting only three vrttis (parusā, upanāgarikā and grāmyā or komalā) only in connexion with one of his three kinds of anuprāsa, viz. vrttyanuprāsa. The later writers follow Udbhata, on this point Udbhata, again, omits the treatment of yamaka, in spite of the examples of Bharata and Bhāmaha before him, and in spite of the fact that Dandin had already given one of the fullest treatments of that figure in the whole realm of Alamkara literature. Rudrata perhaps ranks next to Dandin in the fulness of his treatment. though there is considerable divergence in the details of classification of these two writers. In the same way, there is no reference to citra in Bharata, Bhāmaha or Udbhata. although Māgha says (x1x. 41) that it was in his time a figure indispensable in a Mahākāvya. Daņģin dilates upon some of its varieties, but Rudrata gives a much fuller exposition: and it is noteworthy that although Mammata does not attach much value to such verbal ingenuity, yet in his discussion of this figure he quotes almost all the illustrations from Rudrata. In connexion with the faults concerning verbal figures, Rudrața points out several cases (vi. 29-33) where punarukta or tautology is not a fault; Udbhata, as Nami-sādhu also notes. includes all these cases in the figure punaruktavad-ābhāsa or 'semblance of tautology'. Udbhata, again, speaks of slesa apparently as an arthālamkāra, and divides it into sabda slesa and artha-ślesa, which correspond respectively to ahhangaand sabhanga-slesa of later writers. Rudrata, on the other

hand, speaks of śleşa as a śabdālamkāra which he carefully distinguishes (ii. 13) from the arthālamkāra of the same name, which he deals with separately in ch. x and which forms the basis of twelve independent figures. The verbal figure śleşa, on the contrary, is elaborately classified according as it relates to varna, linga, prakṛti, pratyaya, vibhakti and vacana (iv. 12), Rudraṭa thus avoiding the controversy carried on by later theorists as to whether the śleşa is a figure of śabda or of artha.

Regarding arthalamkaras, Rudrata mentions only four upamā-dosas (xi. 24), in contradistinction to seven of Bhāma ha and Medhavin and six of Vamana⁴⁰. viz.. vaisamva. asambhava, aprasiddhi and sāmānya-śabda-bheda, the last defect including all cases of change of a word signifying common property (as construed with the upameya and the upamāna), due to the difference of linga, vacana, kālu, kāraka and vibhakti. We have already noted that Udbhata enters rather minutely into the grammatical subdivisions of upamā, but this finds no place in Rudrata's treatment, which includes them in a lump in samāsopamā and pratyayopamā. Again, Bhāmaha positively rejects hetu as a poetic figure, although Dandın speaks of it as vācām uttama-bhūsanam, including it under kāvya-linga (kāraka-hetu) and anumāna (jñāpaka-hetu). Udbhata recognises only kāvya-linga, calling it also kāvyahetu and distinguishing it from drstanta which he calls kāvyadrstānta. It is Rudrata (vii. 82) who first defines and fixes its characteristics as finally accepted in Poetics. It is needless to cite any more instance; but what is said above will be enough to indicate, in the first place, that there is a considerable divergence of view between Rudrata and his predecessors with regard to the nature and scope of individual figures and their classification; and what is more important to note, it is easy to demonstrate that most of these differences are fundamental. We can reasonably assume, therefore, that Rudrata. possessed as he is of great inventive power, either follows a

⁴⁰ See vol. i. p. 60, fn 1.

system of classification and definition peculiar to himself, or follows a tradition of opinion different in some respects from that of Bhāmaha and his followers, although in general theory he belongs to a common school

Although Rudrata's work is remarkable indeed for its careful analysis, systematic classification and apposite illustration of a large number of poetic figures, some of which have become more or less standardised, his direct contribution to the theory of Poetics cannot be valued too highly. Indeed, the practical nature and scope of his work, like that of Udbhata's, leave hardly any room for discussion of general principles or of speculative aspects of the questions involved. Rhetoric rather than Poetics appears to be his principal theme, as it is of most writers of this system who concern themselves entirely with the elaboration of rhetorical categories in which they suppose the whole charm of poetry lies. Partly perhaps to his novelty of treatment and partly to his omission of discussion of ultimate principles is due the fact that Rudrata has hardly any direct follower in later literature, unless one cites Rudrabhatta who, however, utilises only his Rasachapters. Rudrata's name is not associated with the establishment of any particular system, although he shows great fertility and acuteness in his treatment of individual figures. which, in some cases, have been implicitly accepted by later writers on the subject. Rudrata is the last great exponent of the Alamkara school, strictly so called; for after him the school began to decline and merge ultimately, like the two other sister schools relating to Rasa and Rīti, into the finally dominant Dhyani school.

(4)

The decline of the Alamkāra-system was probably synchronous with and perhaps hastened by the rise of the rival Rīti-doctrine. The first step towards this is indicated by the general trend of Dandin's work. Dandin who stands, as it were, midway between the Alamkāra and the Rīti

schools, admits, no doubt, the great importance of poetic figures (alaṃkāras) in a scheme of Poetics (ii. 1); but he takes them, along with the guṇas, as constituting the essence of what he calls the mārga (or rīti). As the characteristic of 'embellishing' poetic speech is possessed by both Alaṃkāras and Guṇas, both are, in his opinion, Alaṃkāras in a wider sense, the Guṇas being special embellishments of the Vaidarbha Mārga, while the Alaṃkāras are common to both the Vaidarbha and the Gauḍa Mārgas. Vāmana, who systematically established the Rīti-theory, goes further and lays down that the Guṇas are essential (nitya) excellences, while the Alaṃkāras are not essential (anitya) but serve only to încrease the beauty of a poem already brought out by the former.

With the advent of the Dhvani-theory, there was an elaboration of the concept of Rasa as the principal suggested element not only in the drama but also in poetry; and both the Guna and the Alamkara naturally came to be subservient to it. But the Gunas were supposed to reside in intimate relation to the Rasa, without which they could not exist and existing with which they only served to heighten its beauty. The Alamkaras, on the other hand, were supposed to be extraneous and artificial sources of beauty, just as ornaments are to the body. We shall have occasion to deal with these questions in greater detail in connexion with the views of the Rīti- and the Dhyani-theorists: it would be enough to indicate here that the later theorists, in their search for a fundamental principle, could no longer regard the discipline as co-extensive with an external theory of embellishment; and necessarily the Alamkāra, as well as the Guna, which appertain more or less to the objective beauty of representation, came to occupy a subordinate position as an element of poetry. It was held that the term alamkāra 'embellishment' should explain the question as to what is to be 'embellished' alamkarya; and as such it must confine itself, as the early formulators of the Alamkarasystem modestly yet wisely held. to the 'body' or framework of poetry; it must not attempt to explain its 'soul' or essence

The Alamkara-system, however, left its undoubted impress on later theories. The Rīti-systems of Dandin and Vāmana amply recognise its influence by devoting considerable attention to the detailed discussion of various poetic figures; and although no writer after Anandavardhana seriously contends that the poetic figure is the only element worth considering in poetry, yet all of them acknowledge its importance and assign to it a place in their system. In spite of the emphasis which they put on Dhvani and Rasa, the new school, beginning from Mammata, devote a large section of its work to the elaboration of various poetic figures, and the Alamkarachapter may justly claim to have been a thoroughly worked out theme. Here was given to Indian scholars rich material for subtle distinction and endless classification; and with a hairsplitting care, befitting scholastic minds, all kinds of metaphors, similes, alliterations and other figures were minutely analysed and defined. Indeed, the multiplication of limitless varieties of poetic figures⁴¹, based on minute differences, as well as the making of a large number of subvarieties of each figure, went on through the whole course of the history of the discipline; and down to the latest times, we find traces of new and ever new poetic figures.

The extent to which this specialisation is carried will be understood by taking a typical example. The beauty of a lady's face is described; this can be done in several ways, resulting in a number of poetic figures, by taking the familiar comparison of the Sanskrit poet as the starting point "Your face is like the moon"—upamā; "the moon is like your face"—pratīpa; "your moon-face"—rūpaka; "is this your face, or is this the moon, and not your

⁴¹ Excluding subvarieties, Bharata mentions only 4 Alamkāras, but in Viṣṇu-dharmottara we find 18, Bhāmaha 39 (+4), Daṇḍin 38, Udbhaṭa 41, Rudraṭa 68, Vāmana 31, Mammaṭa 61 (+6), Ruyyaka 75 (+4), Vāgbhaṭa II 63 (+6), Viśvanātha 77 (+7), Jayadeva (Candrāloka) 100, Kuvalayānanda 115. Hence Ānandavardhana says (p. 8): sahasrašo hi mahātmabhir anyair alamkāra-prakārāḥ prakāsitāḥ prakāsyante ca!

face"—apahnuti; "the moon is like your face, and your face is like the moon"—upameyopamā; "your face is only like your face"—ananvaya: "having seen the moon I remembered your face"-smarana: "thinking it to be the moon, the cakora (a bird which is said to feed on moonbeams) flies towards your face"—bhrāntimat: "this is the moon, this the lotus, thus the cakora and the bee fly towards your face"-ullekha; "this is verily the moon"—utpreksā; "this is a second moon"—atiśayokti; "the moon and the lotus are vanguished by your face" tulya-yogitā: "your face and the moon rejoice in the night" dipaka; "the moon shines in night, but your face always shines"—vyatireka; "in the heavens the moon, on earth your face"—drstanta; "the moon reigns in heaven, your face reigns on earth"—prativastūpamā; "your face bears the beauty of the moun"—nidarsana; "the moon is pale before your face" -aprastuta-prasamsā; "by your moon-face the warmth of passion is cooled"—parināma; "your face beautifully spotted with black eyes and adorned with the light of smile" samāsokti. Some of these turns of expression lose their force or point in the translation, but this will roughly indicate the varieties of figures arrived at by nice distinctions, although these constitute only a few, of which comparison forms the basis. They are sharply separated from one another; and although some of the distinctions may appear to us to be somewhat trivial or formal, we cannot retuse to recognise the amount of ingenuity shown in the matter. Even taking only one figure upamā, they subdivide it into a number of inferior varieties, most of which, however, are based on peculiarities of grammatical construction, but which Appayya Diksita, one of the latest writers on the subject, refuses to admit on this very ground in his treatise on poetic figures⁴².

⁴² evam ayam pūrņa-lupta-vibhāgo vākya-samāsa-pratyaya-višeşa-gocaratayā šabda-šāstra-vyutpatti-kaušala-pradaršana-mātra-prayojano nātīvālamkāra-šāstre vyutpādyatām arhati, Citra-mīmāmsā p. 27.

But the different theorists are not agreed in their exposition of the exact nature and scope of individual poetic figures. This difference is partly due to the inevitable change of viewpoints and gradual growth of ideas consequent upon the progress of the study itself, and partly to the favourite refining process which loved to indulge itself in niceties of distinction. The development of the conceptions of the different poetic figures in the writers of different schools affords an interesting field of study in itself, and cannot be comprehended in our limited scope¹²; but one or two instances will make the process clear. The figure aksepa, which (generally speaking) consists of an apparent denial of something which is intended to be said for the purpose of conveying a special meaning. is variously analysed by different writers. Vamana defines it as the repudiation of the standard of comparison, upamānāksepas cāksepah (iv. 3. 27). One interpretation of this, as given in Vāmana's own Vrtti, is upamānasyāksepah pratişedha upamānāksepaḥ, tulya-kāryārthasya nairarthakyavivakşāyām; that is to say, the standard of comparison is rejected for the purpose of indicating that it is useless in the presence of the object described. This would be equivalent to the figure pratipa of later writers. But Vāmana adds another explanation which indicates that the figure can also occur when the standard of comparison is only hinted at (upamānasyāksepatah pratipattir ity api sūtrārthah). This

43 No complete attempt has yet been made to study the development of the different conceptions of individual poetic figures from the earliest time to that of Jagannātha. Much material, however, will be found in Trivedi's and Kane's notes to their learned editions of Ekāvalī and Sāhitya-darpaṇa respectively. J. Nobel has published a series of articles on some of the Alamkāras studied in their development. His Beiträge zur alteren Geschichte des Alamkāra-sāstra (Diss. Berlin 1911) deals with the figures dīpaka, tulya-yogitā, vibhāvanā, visesokti, aprastuta-prasaṃsā, samāsokti, nidarsana, and arthāntara-nyāsa; while his articles in ZDMG lxvi, 1912, pp. 283-93 and lxvii, 1913, pp. 1-36 deal with vyāja-stuti, and sahokti and vinokti respectively, and in lxxiii, 1919, pp. 189f with prativastūpamā and dṛṣṭānta.

would be equivalent to the samāsokti of some writers. Dandin's definition of aksepa, on the other hand, is very wide: for, according to him, the denial (pratisedha) need not be of what has been said (ukta) or of what is about to be said (vakşyamāna), but it may be of anything whatever. Bhāmaha. Udbhata and Mammata limit the denial in so far as it concerns the ukta or the vaksyamāna. They are followed by Ruyyaka, Vidyādhara and Visvanātha, but a second kind is added, viz., the apparent permission of what is not wished for. Jagannātha refers (p. 421f) to both the views of Vāmana and Udbhata, but adds that, according to a third view, which he takes to be the view of the Dhvanikāra, all suggestive negation or denial is the province of ākṣepa. supported by the fact that the visesa or special meaning to be conveyed by the apparent denial is never expressed but always left to be understood. It would, therefore, be classed by the Dhvanikāra under "poetry of subordinate suggestion" (gunībhūta-vyangya), for the expressed sense itself is charming here and the suggested sense is subordinated to it. It is probably in reference to such views that the Agni-purana lays down: sa āksepo dhvanih syāc ca dhvaninā vyajyate yatah. The case of aksepa will exemplify, to some extent, the way in which each poetic figure is not only minutely analysed, but elaborately classified into subvarieties by taking into account the different cases of its occurrence. Thus, upamā (simile) is classified into six complete and twenty-seven incomplete forms: the figure utpreksā into thirty-two varieties, the vyatireka into forty-eight, the virodha into ten. The number of self-standing figures, together with their innumerable adjunct of subvarieties, goes on increasing as the study progresses, until it reaches to a number exceeding one hundred; and it is not surprising that in the later stages of its history, whole volumes like Ruyvaka's Alamkāra-sarvasva, Jayadeva's Candrāloka or Appayya's Kuvalayānanda are dedicated exclusively to the special purpose of analysing, defining and illustrating the various poetic figures.

The simple basis of classfying the poetic figures, according as they appertain to the word or the idea, into śabdūlamkūra and arthalamkara (verbal and ideal figure) obtained throughout from Rudrata's time44, but some writers add figures which are both of the word and the idea (śabdārthālamkāra). The Agni-purāna appears to be one of the earliest known works to mention this third division, and the position is taken up by Bhoja in his Sarasvatī-kanthābharaņa and Śrngāra-prakāśa. A long controversy, however, has centred round the propriety and it has been held that although, of such a classification: generally speaking, all figures are both of śabda and artha, the raison d'être of such divisions is the relative prominence given respectively to sabda, artha or both, on the dictum yo'lamkaro yadāśritah sa tad-alamkūrah. But this relation of āśraya and asrayin (i. e. interdependence) is not accepted by all, and Mammata maintains that anvava (connexion) and vyatireka (disconnexion or contrast) must form the test, which consists in considering whether the particular figure does or does not bear a change of synonymous words (parivrtti-sahatva). If the figure disappears with the change of the word by its synonym, it is a verbal figure or śabdālamkāra; if not, it is an ideal figure or arthalamkara The number of independent Sabdalanikaras has never been large, the largest being probably the twenty-four mentioned by Bhoja. The older writers pay, as a rule, greater attention to this class, which apparently afforded ample scope to decadent classical poets for mere verbal jugglery; but more recent writers like Anandavardhana or Mammata do not deal with it with so much care, on the ground that though such word-play brings about variety or vaicitrya of expression to some extent, it does not help but only retards the comprehension of Rasa in a composition by entirely engrossing the reader's mind. The Arthalamkaras, on the other hand, have always engaged more care and attention. and the favourite refining process has been systematically and

untiringly pursued in this sphere. Their number, however. has always been subject to fluctuation; but it can be generally stated that while in the older writers the number is limited. in comparatively recent authors the multiplication is more marked. On the one hand, Bharata speaks only of four Arthalamkaras: Bhamaha, Udbhata and Vamana deal with about thirty to forty different figures; the number reaching its maximum perhaps in Rudraţa's sixty-eight. In Bhoja, Mammata and Ruyyaka there is a reaction towards restriction and decrease; but in the latest stage of our history, the Candrāloka gives about one hundred, while the Kuvalavānanda adds a score more. Dandin, himself a great sinner in this respect. very early protested against such endless differentiation, and Anandavardhana agrees with him; but it appears to have afforded endless scope to the scholastic ingenuity of later theorists who, after the time of Anandavardhana, finding hardly anything to systematise in respect of the essentials of theory, occupied themselves in elaborating the details.

As to the classification of the ideal figures (arthālamkūra) according to their essential characteristic, Dandin divides all figures into svabhāvokti and vakrokti; Vāmana makes an early attempt to take aupamya as the central principle; while Rudrata groups them systematically under vāstava, aupamya, atišaya and ślesa⁴⁵. Mammata has no definite principle of classification. Ruyyaka suggests one based on (i) aupamya (comparison) (ii) virodha (incongruity) (iii) srhkhalā (linked succession) (iv) nyāya (logical reason) (v) gūdhārtha-pratīti (understanding of a concealed sense; (vi) combination of figures (samsrsti or samkara). Vidvādhara and Visvanātha substantially follow this classification, only splitting up nyāya into tarka-nyāya, wākyanyāya and loka nyāya; but Vidyānātha substitutes the word sādharmya for aupamya (or sādrsya) and speaks of adhyavasāya (complete identification) and viśesaņa-vaicitrya (strikingness of adjectives or attributes) as two other bases of

classification. Perhaps none of these classifications would be regarded as strictly scientific, for they mix broad heads indicating psychological factors (like similarity, contrast or contiguity) with mere formal bases of classification as gūḍhār-tha-pratīti or apahnava.

A development is also noticeable in the general conception of a kāvyālamkāra or poetic figure. It is true that a "poetic figure" corresponds to a certain extent to a "speech-figure" or to what is known as a figure of speech in a formal scheme; but later theorists explain that something more belongs to a poetic figure as such. The special charm, known as vaicitrya or vicchitti, peculiar to each composition, which rests ultimately on the conception or skill of the poet (kavi-pratibhā or kavikauśala) makes up the kāvyālamkāra as such, and gives it its distinguishing characteristic. This view would be entirely omitted in a treatise on rhetoric merely; and with this point of view it is misleading to describe the theory of Alamkara as a theory of rhetorical categories only. Originally it might have been, more or less, a theory of externals, but the problem was complicated by the appearance of this new factor of thought, first introduced by Kuntaka and then elaborated in the sphere of individual figures by Ruyyaka, Jayaratha and others, the development of which will be traced hereafter in its proper place.

CHAPTER III

DANDIN AND VĀMANA

(The Rīti System)

(1)

DANDIN

Dandin comes chronologically after Bhamaha; and Vamana, who comes after Dandin, was contemporaneous with Bhāmaha's commentator Udbhata; but the Rīti-system, which Dandin and Vamana represent in Poetics, was probably older in tradition than Bhāmaha himself, who would not seriously concern himself with the distinction between vaidarbha and gauda Kāvya. It can be traced back to the time of Bānabhatta (first-half of the 7th century) who tells us that the Gaudas were already notorious for aksara-dambara, to which fact Dandin also alludes in his depreciation of the gauda marga. It will be seen that although the terms marga or riti in the technical sense might not have been very ancient, both Dandin and Vāmana themselves indicate that some such system as they advocate was traditionally existent; and they appear to refer to and sometimes actually quote from unknown expositors of the past¹. It is probable that the Rīti school, if we use this term to separate those writers who put an' emphasis on riti as the most important element of poetry, had an independent origin and history, and existed for a long time side by side with the sister schools, which threw into prominence the elements of rasa, alamkāra or dhvani respectively.

We have already stated that Dandin is influenced, to some extent, by the teachings of the Alamkara school, and as such

¹ e. g. under Vāmana i. 2. 11, 12-13; 3. 15, 21; ni. 1. 9, 25; iv. 1. 7 etc.

stands midway in his view between the Alamkāra-system of Bhāmaha and the Rīti-system of Vāmana. At the same time, there can be no doubt that in theory he allies himself distinctly with the views of Vāmana. In Vāmana, however, we find the system in its completely self-conscious form; and here we have nothing of that vagueness or indefiniteness which characterises the rival Alamkāra-system of Udbhaṭa. With a clear-cut scheme and a definite central principle, Vāmana proceeds to set forth his system in the brief but concise sūtra-form; and whatever may be the value of his speculations, there can be no doubt that Vāmana was the first writer to enunciate a definite theory which, before the Dhvanikāra, must have had great influence on the study of Poetics.

With regard to the commonplaces of poetic speculation,² Daṇḍin's standpoint does not differ much from that of Bhāmaha; and both start with the same notion of embellishing sound and sense, which, in their opinion, should constitute the 'body' of poetry. The classification of poetry into species of composition like the sarga-bandha (mahākāvya) etc., is almost identical,³ the only remarkable divergence occurring, as already noted, in the case of kathā and ākhyāyikā, which rigid distinction is not admitted by Daṇḍin.⁴ Poetry

- 2 Daṇḍin's Kāvyādarša consists of three chapters devoted respectively to (i) Mārga-vibhāga, (ii) Arthālaṃkāra and (iii) Śabdālaṃkāra and Doşa (the last topic is separately given as ch. iv in the Madras ed.).
- 3 Under verse, Daṇḍin mentions sarga-bandha (=mahākāvya), muktaka (single verse), kulaka (five verses), kośa (unconnected verses of different authors), and saṃghāta (unconnected verses of the same author); under prose, he speaks kathā, ākhyāyikā and campū. Vāmana gives two divisions of both prose and verse, viz., nibaddha and anibaddha (connected and unconnected). He thinks that verse is of various kinds, but divides prose into three varieties, vṛtta-gandhī (savouring of verse), cūrṇa (having no long compounds and possessing sweet vocables), and utkalikā-prāya which is the opposite of cūrṇa (i. 3. 21-26).
- 4 The varieties of kathā mentioned by Hemacandra are ākhyāna, nidaršana. pravahlikā, matallikā. maņikulyā, parikathā, bṛhatkathā,

is classified, according to its form, into prose, verse and mixed (miśra), while language furnishes another fundamentum divisionis yielding four distinct groups, viz, saṃskṛta, prākrta, apabhraṃśa, and miśra, the last kind in both these divisions not being mentioned by Bhāmaha. The effect of combining these two principles of classification gives us four species of composition, viz. sarga-bandha (mahākāvya) in Sanskrit, skandhaka in Prakrit, osara in Apabhramśa, and nāṭaka in mixed languages, although it is not thought necessary to deal with them all in detail. The old division into śravya and preksya Kāvya, according as a composition appeals to the eye or the ear, is also referred to in i. 39; but regarding preṣya kāvya, by which dramatic composition is generally meant, Daṇḍin summarily refers to specialised treatises on the subject.

These speculations, of course, constitute the common stock-in-trade of Poetics, and find themselves repeated in a more or less similar form in most writers irrespective of the school or tradition to which they belong. Thus, Vāmana also gives us preliminary chapters on the divisions of poetry

khanda-kathā, sakalakathā and upakathā (pp. 338 f) The last three are also admitted by Anandavardhana (p. 141) and defined by Ahhinava. The Agni-purāņa 337. 20 defines kathānikā

- 5 It is not known what Bhāmaha signifies by the term apabhramsu, but Daṇḍin gives to it a desinite connotation as the language of the Abhīras and others in the Kāvya, as distinguished from the Sāstra where it is the name applied to all languages other than Sanskrit. Namisādhu sententiously says: prākṛtam eva apabhramsah. Hemacandra adds to Apabhraṃsa another kind called grāmyāpabhraṃsa. Cf. Bharata xvii. 49, which makes it clear that the Apabhraṃsa was a jāti-hhāṣā and not a deša-bhāṣā. The Abhīras were ancient settlers in the land and are mentioned by Patañjali (i. 252). See 1A, 1918, p. 26.
- 6 The mixed variety of Kāvya is cryptically summed as nāṭakādi tu miśrakam. But if mixed language is meant, it probably refers to what is now called Hybrid Sanskrit or mixed Sanskrit.
- 7 This division occurs again in Hemacandra, who divides prekyya Kāvya into pāthya and geya.

(kāvya-višeşa), on the auxiliary aids or sources of poetry (kāvyāṅga), on the persons entitled to study the science (adhi-kāri-nirūpaṇa). Although belonging to a different school, Rudraţa in the same way devotes two chapters (i and xvi) to these general topics of Poetics.

But in respect of the attention which Dandin pays to the elaboration of poetic figures, his sympathy obviously allies him with the standpoint of the Alamkara school. He shares the views of this school in his general opinion that a good Kāvya should be embellished by those decorative devices which go by the name of alamkāra. At the same time, it is important to note that while Dandin believes, with all early writers, in the theory of embellishment, he differs in his view as to the means by which this embellishment should be realised: for he apparently holds that it is not the poetic figures only but the several literary excellences, the gunas (which are also designated alamkāras by him), that constitute the essence of the poetic manners (margas) or poetic diction, in the realisation of which alone the essence of poetry lies. Indeed, the marked emphasis laid on the Marga, which is almost equivalent to Vāmana's Rīti, and on its constituent excellences, known as Gunas, to which the Alamkara school is apparently indifferent, is a distinct feature of Dandin's work, and places Dandin in his fundamental theoretic attitude in the Rīti school. Although he does not go so far as Vāmana in setting up the Riti as the essence of poetry, there can be no doubt that he attaches special importance to its literary value. It is true that Dandin never uses the term Rīti throughout his work, but his employment of the term Mārga (i. 9, 40, 42, 67, 75, 101) or Vartman (i. 42, 92), implying 'mode,' 'manner', or style in the objective sense, may be taken as almost synonymous. His general definition of poetry, or rather its 'body' or framework, as istārtha-vyavacchinnā padāvalī (i. 10)—a series of words characterised by an agreeable sense or idea—naturally

leads him to consider, first of all, the question of appropriate expression of appropriate ideas, or in other words, to discuss the suitable arrangement of sound and sense for the purpose of producing poetic effect, which is technically denoted by the term mārga or rīti. Speech, he says, is diversified in its mode of expression (vicitra-mārga, i. 9; also i. 40), and he is aware of the fine distinctions which mark off one mode from another (i. 40) and result in a multifarious variety of modes. All these he broadly divides into two clearly distinguishable types, called the vaidarbha and the gauda, to the critical study of which his whole work is avowedly devoted. This classification is probably not Dandin's own but derived from some recognised tradition (i. 40), although Bharata, who mentions the kāvya-guņas, does not refer to mārga or rīti, and Bhāmaha's analysis of the two types' (as well as of the gunas) is somewhat different. Of the two types, Dandin gives preference to the vaidarbha mārga, which, in his opinion, results from a harmonious unification of the ten gunas or excellences of composition, the gauda being the exactly opposite type.

The ten Guṇas, which are spoken of as the prāṇāḥ or lifebreath of the Vaidarbha Mārga and which are said to be generally wanting in the Gauḍa,¹⁰ are therefore essential in a good composition. They are thus enumerated by Daṇḍin:

⁹ Bhāmaha does not use the terms mārga or rīti but distinguishes between the vaidarbha and the gauda Kāvya as two types of poetry obtaining in two different places. Bāṇa has already told us that people of different places liked different poetic devices (Harşa-carita i, \$1.7), with which statement Daṇḍin's remarks regarding the partiality of the Gauḍas to certain tricks and excellences agree. As Vāmana distinctly says, the Rītis, which took their names from localities, were probably analysed empirically from the styles which prevailed in these localities. With regard to Guṇas, Bhāmaha mentions them independently of the Rīti. They are mādhurya and prasāas marked by the absence of compounds, and ojas by their presence. They would thus correspond to the Rītis of Rudrata. Bharata mentions ten Guṇas only as essential to a good Kāvya, and not in relation to Rīti.

¹⁰ Dandin says: esam (i.e. of the ten Gunas) wiparyayah prayo

- (1) śleşu, the quality of being well knit, the opposite being sithila or looseness.
- (11) prasāda, or lucidity, the opposite being vyutpanna or far-fetchedness.
- (111) samatā, or evenness (in the grouping of word-sounds), the opposite being vaisam) a or unevenness.
- (iv) mādhuryu, or elegance, consisting of alliteration of similar sound (śrutyanuprāsa¹¹) and absence of vulgarity (agrāmyatva)¹², respectively termed vāg-rasa and vastu-rasa. The name of the opposite of mādhurya is not given, but the opposite of śrutyanuprāsa is ulbaņa-varņāvṛtti (i. 35)¹³ and that of agrāmyatva is grāmyatva, the latter rejected in both the Mārgas.
- (v) sukumāratā, or absence of harshness due to the use of soft vocobles, the opposite being termed nisthura or dīpta.¹⁴
- (vi) artha-vyakti, or explicitness of sense (common to both the Mārgas, the opposite neyatva or neyārthatva being rejected in both).

dṛśvate gauda-vartmani. It implies that in his opinion the Viparyayas are generally tound in the Gauda Mārga and not the ten Guṇas. The word prāyas is significant, and the older commentators draw attention to it. Thus, Taruṇavācaspati: prayaḥ-śabdaḥ arthavyakty-audārya-samādhyādayo guṇā ubhaya-sādhāraṇā iti daršayati; Hṛdayaṅgama: prāyo-grahaṇaṇ sākalya-nivṛtyartham, tena arthavyakty-audārya-samādhi-guṇā ubhaya-mārga-tulyā iti gamyate. Some of the Guṇas, therefore, are common to both the Mārgas.

- 11 The śrutyanuprāsa is the name given to the grouping of similar sounds which exist between letters belonging to the same sthāna, such as kaṇṭha, tālu, mūrdhan, danta etc. It is thus distinguished from varṇānuprāsa. The subdivisions of anuprāsa are infinite; but Bhoja (ch. ii. 71f) gives an elaborate scheme of classification containing six main varieties, viz. śruti, vṛṭti, varṇa, pada, nāma-dvirukti and lāṭa.
- 12 For the meaning of the terms grāmyatva and rasa occurring in this definition, see below ch. iv.
- 13 This implies "an excess of a wild variety of Anuprasa" as V. Raghavan interprets it (*Stringara-pr.* pt. ii, p. 283). For an historical analysis of the Gunas of Dandin and Vamana, see this work of V. Raghavan (pp. 282-299).
 - 14 Dipta is explained by Dandin as Krechrodya=hard to pronounce.

- (vii) udāratva, or elevation consisting of the expression of some high merit (common to both the Mārgas).
- (viii) ojas or force due to the presence of compounds (common to both the Mārgas, but the Vaidarbha attempts a simpler kind of prose, while the Gauda attempts a hightened style both in prose and in verse, long compounds prevailing in the latter case).
- (ix) kānti, or agreeableness due to conformity to general usage; in other words, absence of the unnatural, the exaggerated or the grotesque, the opposite being atyukti.
- (x) samādhi, or transference of the qualities or actions of one thing to another, i. e. metaphorical expression generally (common to both the Mārgas).

It will be noticed that the above enumeration of the literary excellences of diction, which differs greatly from that of Bharata¹⁵, is neither exhaustive nor strictly logical. The arthavyakti, for instance, may well be included in the prasada. The definition of udaratva is rather vague, so also is that of kānti, in both of which Dandin apparently admits subjective valuations not clearly indicated. Again, the mādhurya, though defined primarily as a particular mode of word-arrangement, is regarded more or less as a subtle excellence which defies analysis¹⁶. A similar indefinable psychological factor is apparently admitted in the samādhi, the definition of which makes it difficult to distinguish from it poetic figures like rūpaka or metaphor, where there is also poetic superimposition of an object or its qualities on another. It is quite possible that from Dandin's point of view, the difference between the samādhi-guna and the rūpaka-alamkāra may consist in the fact in the Guna there is a transference only of the qualities or actions of one thing to another, while in the Alamkara

¹⁵ See above pp. 12-15.

¹⁶ Dandin's treatment implies that he considers it both as a sabda-guna (illustrated in i. 53) and as an artha-guna (illustrated in i. 64), although this distinction is not mentioned by him (but cf. the word vibhakta in i. 68).

either one dharmin itself is substituted for another, or the new dharma entirely supplants the existing dharma. But this process of poetic transference is essentially a mode of figurative expression resting finally on lakṣaṇā, and Vāmana would regard Daṇḍin's definition of the samādhi-guṇa as constituting the figure vakrokti which, in his opinion, consists in a similar transference based on resemblance.

It must also be pointed out that some of Dandin's Gunas refer to sabda (word), some to artha (sense), while others to both these elements. The mādhurva and sukumāratā are primarily sabda-gunas, depending on the use of specific vocables, while between themselves the mādhurya requires soundalliteration, and sukumāratā the prevailing use of tender vocables. But the use of words or syllables suggesting a vulgar sense must be avoided in mādhurya, a fact which precludes us from taking it strictly as a śabda-guna. Dandin does not make a hard-and-fast distinction between sabdagunas and artha-gunas, as his successor Vāmana does; but taking his definitions as they stand, it would appear that he probably regards some of them (e. g. ślesa, samatā, sukumāratā or ojas, all of which refer to sound-effects) as constituting what later theorists would call sabda-gunas, and others (e.g., prasāda, artha-vyakti, udāratva, kānti or samādhi) as constituting artha-gunas; while Gunas like mādhurya he would in the same way classify as belonging both to sabda and artha. Dandin himself was perhaps conscious of the defective nature of his classification, and consequently added (i. 101-102) that in the midst of a general agreement regarding the usage of Gunas, there always exist differences between writers and writers as regards the emotional value of their composition or their artistic presentation.

After dealing with the Gunas in relation to the two opposite types of Mārga, Dandin begins (ch. ii) the treatment of those poetic embellishments which are specifically called Alamkāras or poetic figures. It must be distinctly understood that the word alamkāra is used by Dandin in the general sense

of that which causes beauty in poetry, kāvya-sobhākarān dharmān alaṃkārān pracakṣate, ii. 1. It appears to include in its wide scope both Guṇas and Alaṃkāras properly so called. Referring to his own discussion of the Guṇas in the previous chapter, in relation to the Vaidarbha Mārga of which they constitute the essence, Daṇḍin speaks of them in ii. 3 as alaṃkāras, and goes on to mention the figures as sādhāraṇam alaṃkāra-jātam. In other words, poetic figures are Alaṃkāras common to both the Mārgas (sādhāraṇa), while Guṇas are Alaṃkāras belonging exclusively to the Vaidarbha. He says, therefore, at the outset of his treatment of the poetic figures (ii. 3)

kāścin mārga-vibhāgārtham uktāḥ prag apy alamkriyāḥ/sädhāraṇam alamkāra-jūtam adya pradurśyate//

"For the purpose of classifying the mārgas, some alaṃkāras have been already spoken of (by me in the previous chapter); now are shown those alaṃkāras which are common (to both the mārgas)". Taruṇavācaspati rightly comments, on this verse¹⁷: "The śleṣa and the like are already spoken of as the ten guṇas. If it is objected, therefore, that they cannot also be called alaṃkāras, the reply is that the characteristic of an alaṃkāra consists in its capacity of embellishing, and that on account of this characteristic they (guṇas) are also alaṃkāras. The learned teachers have already said that the guṇas are indeed alaṃkāras. Hence alaṃkāras, like the śleṣa, which are essentially guṇas, were mentioned before to indicate the difference between the (two) mārgas; but now are enumerated those alaṃkāras which are common to the two mārgas." Daṇḍin, it may be pointed out, uses the word alaṃ-

¹⁷ pūrvam šlesādayo daša guņā ity uktam. Kaiham te'lamkāra ucyante iti cet, šobhākaratvam hi alamkāra-laksaņam, tallaksaņa-yogāt te'pyalamkārāh...... guņā alamkāra eva ity ācāryāh...... tatah ślesādayo guņātmakālamkārāh pūrvam mārga-prabheda-pradaršanāya uktāh, idānīm tu mārga-dvaya-sādhāraņā alamkārā ucyante.

kriyā in same general sense in iii. 137 (or iv. 14 in Madras ed.). From what is said above it follows that Dandin does not make a fundamental theoretic distinction between the guna and the alamkara as such (as later writers from Vamana onwards do), but apparently regards them both essentially as alamkāra, taking the word in its wider sense of that which embellishes; the gunas being of primary importance as essentials of a good diction, and the alamkāras (i. e. poetic figures) of subsidiary value as constituents of diction, both good and bad. It is noteworthy that Dandin never makes a confusion in the use of the two terms, but invariably applies the former term to denote (except in one case in ii. 364) the literary excellences of diction (1. 42, 76, 81, 100), and the latter to designate the poetic figures to which the name is traditionally restricted (ii. 7, 116, 214, 220, 268, 300, 340, 359; iii. 141, alamkāratā in ii 237, 287, 367). In this way he practically foreshadows, if he does not theoretically develop, the rigid disserentiation of the Guna and the Alamkara of the Riti school.

The subsidiary alamkāras, consisting of poetic figures, are dealt with by Dandin in two chapters (ii and iii), devoted respectively to the treatment of the verbal (śabda-) and ideal figures (artha-alamkāras). He does not expressly state this distinction, which is implied in his treatment, but he gives his general opinion that verbal tricks like those of yamaka are not especially attractive (naikānta-madhuram). He deals with them, however, in greater detail than his predecessor Bhāmaha. The prahelika (conundrum), is for instance, which is merely alluded to in one verse by Bhāmaha, is elaborately discussed and illustrated by Daṇḍin (iii. 96-124) who mentions sixteen different kinds of this figure. He also gives a detailed treatment of yamaka, and defines with illustrations such

¹⁸ Some prahelikās are already mentioned by Bāṇa. Bhāmaha in a somewhat obscure verse states that a prahelikā is a serious composition possessing varied constituent meanings as well as the tricks of yamaka, and is so called in Rāmaśaiman's Acyutottara. Dandin men-

difficult tricks as gomutrikā, ardha-bhrama and sarvato-bhadra.

To the Arthalamkaras, however, Dandin naturally pays greater attention. He mentions by name (ii. 4-7) only thirtyfive poetic figures¹, but the special feature of his treatment, as contrasted with those of Bhāmaha and Vāmana, consists in his attempt to make a large number of subordinate varieties, the most remarkable instance being that of upamā, which has thirty-two subdivisions, of which eight at least have the value of independent figures to later writers. Dandin also anticipates Udbhata in pointing out the importance of ślesa as the cause of special charm in other figures (ii. 362), and agrees with Bhāmaha in holding that the ausavokti is essential in all poetic figures (ii. 220). The term vakrokti is used only once and is reserved by him as a collective name of all poetic figures barring the svabhāvokti. According to Dandin's scheme (as indicated in ii. 362), the whole realm of poetic figures can be divided into two distinct groups, consisting of svabhāvokti, on the one hand, and vakrokti, on the other. By the former, which he characterises as the first or primary figure (ād a alamkriih), he implies a plain and direct description of things belonging to a genus (jāti), or of an action

tions 16 kinds of prahelikā. Rudraţa, like Dandin, deals with the prahelikā as well as the citra-bandhas in some detail. But Vāmana excludes them. Some of the citra-bandhas are mentioned by Bāṇa and Māgha. Under the general designation of citra-kāvya, they are discredited by Ānandavardhana, and their importance diminished in later Poetics. They became the subject of specialised treatises like the Vidagdha-mukha-mandana of Dharmadāsa Sūri (vol. 1, pp. 283-84).

19 The figures dealt with in their order of treatment are wabilitivokti, upamā, rūpaka, dīpaka, āvṛtti, ākṣepa, arthāntara-nyāsa, vyatireka, vibhāvanā, samāsokti, atišayokti, utprekṣā, hetu, sūkṣma, leśa (or lava), yathā-samkhya (or samkhyāna or krama), preyas, rasavat, ūrjasvin, paryāvokta, samāhita, udātta, apahnuti, śleṣa, viševokti, tulya-yogitā, virodha, aprastuta-prašaiņsā, vyāja-stuti, nidaršanā, sahokti, parivṛtti, āsīs, saṃkīrṇa and bhāvika. The verses ii. 4-7, which give a prefatory list of figures, are suspected to be an interpolation, but the list substantially agrees with the poetic figures dealt with in ch. ii.

(kriyā), of a quality (guna), or of an individual $(dravya)^{20}$. In this so-called natural description, there is apparently no scope for any artificial or ingenious mode of expression, and it should, therefore, be distinguished from all other poetic devices. figurative or otherwise, collectively designated as the vakrokti²¹. Among other figures, defined by Dandin for the first time, may be mentioned the avrtti, leśa (=vyājokti or vyājastuti), sūksma and hetu (the last included by Udbhata in his kāvya-linga). He does not define ananvaya and sasamdeha, calling them asadharanopama and samsayopama respectively, and includes upamā-rūpaka und utpreksāvayava under rūpaka and utpreksā respectively. With Bhamaha, he alludes to vārttā (i. 85), which is apparently illustrated by Bhatti, but which disappears from later Poetics, being included perhaps in the scope of svabhāvokti. The prativastūpamā is not an independent figure in Dandin but a variety of upamā, while the samahita of Dandin is different from the same figure of Udbhata and Vāmana. These few instances would indicate that, compared with the work of his predecessor. Dandin's work attempts to present many new ideas Possessing great inventive powers and gift of lucid exposition, as well as a notable degree of scholastic acumen, he endeavoured not only to refute and correct in many places the earlier views, but sometimes gave a new shape to them.

It will be convenient to examine here briefly the doctrine of Doşa, which forms a counterpart of the doctrine of Guṇa enunciated by the Rīti school. Daṇḍin mentions, after. Bharata, ten flaws or Doşas of literary composition (ch. iii. 125f, or ch. iv Madras ed.), but he defines them differently in most cases. They are in name and substance identical with Bhā-

²⁰ These terms are to be taken in the sense they have in grammar (and not as they have in philosophy).

²¹ This interpretation is supported by Dandin's commentators (see Madras ed. pp. 201-2). We have already dealt with the question in our Introd. to Vakrokti-jivita, 2nd Ed. pp. xiv f. See above pp. 48f.

²² See above pp. 9-11. Also Jacobi in Sb. der preuss. Akad. xxiv,

maha's first list of Dosas noted above22, with the only exception of the eleventh fault of defective logic, which is recognised by Bhāmaha but vigorously rejected by Dandin as a fault difficult to judge and unprofitable to discuss. But even with reference to this fault, Dandin agrees with Bhamaha in the enumeration of its six subdivisions. With regard to Bhamaha's second list of faults, which concern the inner essence of poetry they would correspond in general to the Dosa (or rather the opposites of Guna) which Dandin mentions as being absent in the Vaidarbha Märga and as generally characterising the opposite Gauda Mārga. We have noted that some of these Guna-viparyayas are expressly named by Dandin. They are (i) the opposite of ślesa, called śithila (ii) the oppisite of prasāda, called vyutpanna (iii) the opposite of samatā, called vaisamya (iv) the opposite of sukumāratā, called dīpta (v) the opposite of kānti, called atyukti (vi) the opposite of artha-vyakti, called neyatva and (vii) the opposite of mādhurya (unnamed). These form seven faults as against ten of Bhamaha, but Dandin speaks of the excellences udaratva, samadhi (and probably ojas) as having no opposites (or corresponding faults), inasmuch as they are common to both the Margas. Dandin does not regularly deal with Upamā-doşas.

But Daṇḍin does not enter into the question first raised by Bharata as to whether the Doşas in Poetics are positive entities or mere negations of Guṇas. Bharata holds that Guṇas signify nothing more than the negative condition of doṣābhāva, so that Doṣas are, in his opinion, positive entities, from which the Guṇas are known by implication. It is clear from Daṇḍin's treatment, however, that he mentions in ch. iv the external faults apparently as positive entities, after the manner of Bhāmaha; while the essential faults are taken as negations of some of the Guṇas of the Vaidarbha Mārga and consequently as positive characteristics of the Gauḍa Mārga. He attempts to avoid the controversy by making use of the distinction of

1922, pp. 222-3. On Dandin's idea of Doşa see V. Raghavan, Srngara-prakāsa, pt. ii, p. 234f.

the two opposite types of diction, making the so-called Guṇas the characteristics of the Vaidarbha type and some of the so-called Doşas the characteristics of the Gauda type. Vāmana, on the other hand, in conformity to his clear-cut theory of Rīti, goes directly against the opinion of Bharata and expressly makes the Guṇas positive entities, defining the Doşas as opposites of Guṇas and as known from the latter by implication (guṇa-viparyātmano doṣāḥ, arthatas tad-avagamaḥ). But he adds that the Doṣas should be dealt with separately for the sake of clear understanding. He, therefore, divides the Doṣas into four classes (i) defects of words (pada doṣas) (ii) defects of the meaning of the words (padārtha-doṣas) (iii) defects of sentences (vākya-doṣas) and (iv) defects of the meaning of sentences (vākyārtha-doṣas)²³.

23 Rudrata, apparently accepting both Gunas and Dosas as independent entities, enumerates and classifies Dosas on a different principle. Taking sabda and artha as the two elements of poetry, he mentions in two series (1) sahda-doşas or defects of words and (2) artha-doşas or defect of sense. The first series includes eleven faults, viz. (i) pada-doşas like asamartha, apratīta visamdhi, viparīta-kalpanā, grāmya, avyutpanna and desya (7 kinds) (ii) vākya-dosas, such as samkīrņa, garbhita, gatārtha and analamkāra (4 kinds). The second series comprehends (besides four upamā-doşas) nine faults, viz., apahetu, apratīta, nirāgania, bādhayat, asambaddha, grāmya, virasa, tadvat and atimātra. Rudrața recognises (xi. 24) only four Upamā-doşas, viz., sāmanyašabda-bheda, vaisamya, asambhava and aprasiddhi, but Bhamaha mentions seven. (On Rudrata's general idea of Guna and Dosa respectively see V. Raghavan, Sṛṅgāra prakāša, pt. ii, pp. 302 f and 239 f). Like Bhamaha and Dandin, Rudrata believes that with change of conditions Dosas become Gunas. After the advent of the Dhvanitheorists, the Dosa (like the Guna) came to be related to the Rasa, the poetic mood in a composition, and began to be defined as that which depreciates or hinders the awakening of Rasa. The doctrine of Doşa was taken along with the doctrine of Guna, of which it formed the counterpart, and was considered from the standpoint of Rasa alone. They were no longer absolute entities, but attributes or absence of attributes relative to the development of Rasa, and must therefore be governed by the theory of aucitya or propriety which these theorists put forward in their treatment of Rasa. The Doşas

(2)

VĀMANA

Vāmana's work²⁴, in comparison with Daṇḍin's, shows further progress and elaboration of the ideas discussed above. Indeed, what is vague and unsystematic in Daṇdin appears fully developed and carefully set forth in Vāmana, who may thus be fittingly regarded as the best representative of the Rīti-system. To Vāmana belongs the credit of being the first writer on Poetics who, before the Dhvanikāra and Ānandavardhana, gave us a well thought-out and carefully outlined scheme of Poetics, no longer naive or tentative, which

came to be defined generally as rasāpakarşaka (Viśvanātha); but specific rasa-dosas also came to be defined and discussed. The question whether the Dosa is nitya or anitya (already raised by Bhāmaha and Rudrata) is solved by supposing that a Doşa may sometimes become a Guna if it helps (and not hinders) the development of the Rasa. Mammata and most later theorists accept the distinction of Doşas relating to pada, vākya and artha; but they speak also of rasa-doşas and alamkāra-doşas. The later opinion regarding the respective character of Guna and Doşa appears to be that each of them conveys a positive meaning, in spite of the fact that some Dosas approach the condition of guṇā-bhāva and some Guṇas approach the condition of doṣābhāva. Even Daṇḍin in ch. iv separately mentions ten Doṣas which he does not regard as constituting the opposite of any of his Gunas.

24 Instead of having adhyāyas first and adhikaraṇas thereunder, Vāmana reverses the order of older sūtra-writers and divides his work into five adhikaraṇas, each of which consists of two adhyāyas (excepting the first and the fourth which contain three each), the whole work thus having five adhikaranas and twelve adhyāyas. The arrangement of these adhikaraṇas is as follows. I. śarīra: dealing with the object of poetry, persons qualified to receive instructions in the subject, the Rīti and its subdivisions, the subsidiary aids and divisions of poetry. II. doṣa-darśana: treating of the defects or flaws of composition. III. guṇa-vivecana: considering the Guṇas or excellences of composition. IV. ālaṃkārika: devoted to the definition and illustration of poetic figures. V. prāyogika: setting forth the poetic conventions and propriety of poetic usages, and śabda śuddhi (corresponding to the last chapter of Bhāmaha's work), explaining grammatical solecism.

in spite of its theoretic defects, is in some respects unique and valuable.

The enquiry as to what is the 'soul' or essence of poetry is for the first time definitely posed and systematically worked out by Vāmana; his predecessors, to whom the 'body' of poetry was more important, never having troubled themselves with this question Vāmana lays down in clear terms: rītir ātmā kāvyasya 'the Rīti is the soul of poetry' (i. 2. 6); and working out this figurative description he points out (on i. l. 1) that the word (sabda) and its sense (artha) constitute the 'body', of which the soul is the Rīti³⁵. He defines the Rīti as viśistapada-racanā or particular arrangement of words. This particularity (vasistya) of arrangement, again, rests upon certain definite combination of the different Gunas or fixed excellences of composition. For instance, of the three kinds of Rīti proposed by Vāmana, the Vaidarbha unites all the ten Gunas, the Gaudi abounds in ojas and kānti, the Pāncālī is endowed with mādhurya and saukumārya. This is how Vāmana would distinguish the different Rītis from one another. On these three Ritis poetry takes its stand, just as painting has its substratum in the lines drawn on the canvas (on 1, 2, 13). The Vaidarbhī is of course recommended, for it contains all the excellences; and as the genius of each diction is peculiar to itself, Vamana rejects the view that the other two inferior dictions ought to be practised as steps leading up to the Vaidarbhī. He argues that the proper

25 Vāmana says (i. l. 1) that the word $k\bar{a}vya$ applies in strictness to word and sense embellished with Guṇa and Alaṃkāra, but it is employed in the secondary sense (bhaktyā) to mere word and sense. By Kāvya-śarīra he means elsewhere (i. 3. 10) itivṛtta or the content or subject-matter of poetry. But the first chapter of his work is designated Śārīra; and on i. 2. 6 he says that the word śarīra must be understood after the word kāvya in the Sūtra. meaning thereby that Kāvya consisting of word and sense is the Śarīra, of which the Ātman is Rīti. For the history of the concept of Rīti see V. Raghavan, Some Concepts, pp. 131-172; Prakash C. Lahiri, Concepts of Rīti and Guṇa, Dacca University 1937.

diction cannot be attained by one who begins with the improper. If the weaver practises weaving with jute, he does not attain proficiency in the weaving of silk. It will be seen from this analysis of the three kinds of diction that the Vaidarbhi is the complete or ideal one which unifies all the poetic excellences, whereas the other two encourage extremes. The one lays stress on the grand, the glorious or the imposing. the other on softness and sweetness, whereby the former loses itself often in bombast, the latter in prolixity. It will be noticed also that the names of the different Rītis are derived from those of particular countries, and Vamana expressly says in this connexion (i. 2, 10) that the names are due to the fact of particular excellence of diction being prevalent in the writings of particular countries²⁶. This makes it probable that the theory of diction, peculiar to this school, originally arose from the empirical analysis of the prevailing peculiarities of poetic expression in different places, and furnishes another proof of the general a posteriori character of the discipline itself.27

26 vidarbha gauḍa-pāñcāleṣu tatratyaiḥ kavibhīr yathā-svarūpam upalabāhatvād tat-samākhyā, na punar deśath kiṃcid upakriyate kāvyānām.

27 In the absence of proper data, it is not possible to determine when the distinction between the Eastern and Southern styles—Gauda and Vaidarbha-was first recognised. We have already noted that Bana speaks of people of different localities affecting different tricks of style. some putting stress on sound, some on sense, while others indulging in a play of fancy. In Dandin's time the distinction must have been fully established. Jacobi (Māhārāştrī, pp. xv1) suggests that the simpler Vaidarbha style was a reaction against the older and more ornate Gaudastyle (which Dandin disfavours), and that it came into existence probably in the 3rd century A.D., being known to us from Hāla's Saptasatī (5th century A.D.). It is possible to argue, on the contrary, that the Gauda-style itself is a sign of further development or decadence, exhibiting a tendency to a more elaborate style (as opposed to an earlier and simpler Vaidarbha-style) which we find, as a matter of practice, asserting itself more and more in later decadent Sanskrit Kavya. Cf Keith, Classical Sanskrit Literature p. 50.

It should be observed that the term Rīti is hardly equivalent to the English word 'style', by which it is often rendered but in which there is always a distinct subjective valuation. Although artha (i. e. sense or idea) is admitted as an element by Sanskrit writers, the Rītı consists essentially of the objective beauty of representation (of the intended idea), arising from a proper unification of certain clearly defined excellences, or from an adjustment of sound and sense. It is, no doubt, recognised that appropriate ideas should find appropriate expression; or in other words, the outward expression should be suitable to the inward sense Bharata goes further and formulates that in the drama the expression should also be in keeping with the temperament and character of the speaker to whom it is attributed. But at the same time, the Rīti is not, like the style, the expression of poetic individuality, as it is generally understood by Western Criticism, but it is merely the outward presentation of its beauty called forth by a harmonious combination of more or less fixed literary 'excellences.' Of course, the excellences are supposed to be discernible in the sense or import, as much as in the verbal arrangement, but this subjective content is not equivalent to the indefinable element of individuality which constitutes the charm of a good style. If we accept the nomenclature of a modern analyst of style28, we may say that the Sanskrit authors admit what he would call the 'mind'-in-style, as a subject of technical formulation, but not the 'soul'-in-style, which is elusive and which they leave to individual writers to evolve in their own way.

²⁸ Walter Pater's essay on Style in his Appreciations. V. Raghavan (Some Concepts, p. 140) demurs to our views, but it does not help to refer to Demetrius of Aristotle, for we are not concerned here with European classical literature but with modern literature, as viewed by Walter Pater of Benedotte Croce. It is not until we come to Kuntaka that poetry is brought in strict relation to poetic individuality (kavistabhāva) or poetic conception (kavi-pratibhā). This is admitted by Raghavan himself.

Vāmana, therefore, teaches that the Gunas are essential in poetry, as they go to make up the Riti, which is the 'soul' of poetry. The objection of the author of the Ekāvalī (p. 51) is that to conceive the Gunas, on the one hand, as the principal element and therefore as something fit to be adorned (upaskārya) and to call them, on the other hand, properties that adorn poetry (upaskāraka,) involves contradiction in terms. This raises only a scholastic quibble which does not bear serious examination. The Gunas are, no doubt, spoken of as sabdarthayor dharmah, but this, as the commentator points out, is a loose or popular use of the term; for, strictly speaking, they are concerned directly with Rīti (guṇā vastuto rītinisthā api, upacārāc chabda dharmā ity uktam p. 69, ed. Benares), which is described as gunātmā. To the objection that these entities have no absolute existence, Vāmana replies that their existence is vouched by their cognition as such by men of taste (samvedyatvāt iii. 1. 26. on which comm.; sahrdayasamvedanasya vişayatvūt), and that these excellences are not found in all cases of recitation but depend upon the presence or absence of certain well-defined characteristics (in. 2, 28) and Vrtti).

Like Dandin, Vāmana enumerates the Gunas as ten, which appears to have been the standard number from Bharata's time, but he really doubles the number by clearly differentiating between the Sabda-gunas and the artha-gunas, and regarding each Guna as belonging respectively to Sabda and artha. In other words, each Guna is looked at from two different points of view, and the distinction thus proposed between verbal and ideal excellences comes in, as technically put, according as the word or the idea is the denoter (vācaka) or the denoted (vācya). We find in Vāmana, for the first time, the definite classification of Gunas of Sabda and Artha respectively. This sharp distinction, no doubt, clears away some of the vagueness surrounding definitions of Bharata's and Dandin's individual Gunas; and Vāmana, though widely differing from his predecessors in the occuliar connotation

he attaches to some of them, is careful in distinguishing the allied Gunas from one another. In most essentials Vāmana undoubtedly continues and expands Daṇḍin's somewhat unsystematic scheme, but his definitions bear in some cases an altogether different complexion, and justify us in presuming that Vāmana develops his ideas from elsewhere, as he himself often supports his analysis by verses quoted from unknown sources (e. g. under iii, 1, 9, 25; 2, 15 etc.).

His scheme of the Gunas may be tabulated thus:

Śabda-guņa

- i. ojas, or compactness of word-structure (gādha-bandhatva, where bandha=pada-racanā ii. 1. 4)
- ii. prasāda, or laxity of structure (śaithil) a)
- iii. śleşa, or coalescence of words resulting in smoothness (masṛṇatvam, yasmin sati bahūny api padāny ekavad bhūsante)
- iv. samatā, or homogeneity of manner, i. e., of construction (mārgābhedah, yena mārgeņopakramas tasyātyāgaḥ)
- v. samādhi, or symmetry due to orderly ascent and descent, i.e. when the heightening effect is toned down by softening effect, and vice versa (ārohāvaroha-krama)

Artha-guna

- 1. ojas. or maturity of conception (arthasya praudhuh)
- neaning (artha-vaimalya) by avoidance of superfluity (anu-payogi-parivarjanāt, as Abhinavagupta explains)
- ni. śleşa, or coalescence or commingling of many ideas (ghaţanā)
- iv. samatā, or non-relinquishment of proper sequence of ideas (prakra-mābheda)
- v. samādhi, or grasping of the original meaning arising from concentration of the mind (artha-dṛṣṭiḥ samādhi-kāraṇatyāt)

Śabda-guna

vi. mādhurya, or distinctness of words (prthak-padatva) due to absence of long compounds (samāsa-dairghyanivrtti)

vii. saukumār) a, or freedom from harshness (ajarathatva)

vini. udāratā, or liveliness in which the words seem as if they are dancing (yasmın sati nrtyantīva padānı) i. e. pada-vicchedāt?

ix. artha-vyukti, or explicitness of words whereby the meaning is easily opprehended (jhatitya-artha-pratipatti hetutva)

x. kānti, or brilliance.
i.e. richness of words
(auivalya)

Artha-guņa

vi. mādhurya, or strikingness of utterance (uku-vaicitrya), i. e. in an impressive periphrastic manner for special charm

vii. saukumūrya, or freedom from disagrecable or inauspicious ideas (apūrusya)

(viii. udāratā, or delicacy i. e. absence of vulgarity (agrāmyatva)

ix. artha-vyal.ti, or explicitness of ideas which makes the nature of things clear (vastu-svabhāva-sphutatva)

x. kūnti, or prominence of the rasas (dīpta-rasatva)

It will be seen from this brief enumeration that Vāma na's Guṇas differ considerably from those of Bharata or Daṇdin. Vāmana's ojas, for instance, would correspond to Dandin's sleṣa, while Daṇḍin's mādhurya is split up into prthak-padatva and agrāmyatva. Vāmana brings in the idea of Rasa in the artha-guna kānti (cf. Bharata's kānti), thereby admitting it in one of the essentials of poetry, while Daṇḍin acknowledges it in some of the non-essential poetic figures Vāmana's artha-guṇa artha-vyakti would be regarded by Daṇḍin as an instance of svabhāvokti alaṇikāra. But it must be observed that Vāmana's scheme, while being more systematic and thus marking an advance on the speculation of Daṇḍin's, is hardly satisfactory as a whole. The somewhat pedantic classification of Gunas, into external and internal, verbal and

ideal, is in itself open to objections and has been controverted by later theorists29. The distinctions are sometimes unconvincing, and it is natural to suspect that they are made for the sake of symmetry of having two sets each of ten excellences. Taking the individual Gunas, it appears that Vāmana himself was perhaps conscious of the defective nature of some of his definitions, although he must have elaborated the ten Gunas according to some current convention. For instance, his śabda-guna prasāda is merely a negation of his ojas; Vāmana himself admits this and adds the qualification that the prasada is an excellence when appearing along with ojas and not by itself, for when it appears by itself it is clearly a defect. If it is objected that there cannot be a combination of two such contradictory Gunas, Vāmana replies that such a combination is a fact of common experience. Vamana's ślesa is rejected by Mammata as an independent excellence, inasmuch as it is only a particular form of ojas. In the same way, the saukumārya is not admitted by later theorists on the ground that it is merely the negation of the defect of harshness, just as Vāmana's udāratā is a negation of vulgarity (grāmyatva). His samādhi as an artha-guna is different from Dandin's samādhi, but it is hardly an 'excellence.' It is supposed to consist in comprehending the original meaning. but this happens in the case of all compositions; for there can hardly be any poetry, worth the name, of which the meaning is not comprehended. These and other objections are brought forward by Mammata and his followers, who protest against this needless multiplication and differentiation of the Gunas, and who sum up the literary 'qualities,' which they admit as an embellishment of the principal sentiment (Rasa) of the composition, under three broad categories. differentiated on entirely psychological grounds, viz., ojas (energy), prasāda (lucidity) and mādhurya (sweetness).

²⁹ e. g. Mammata viii, Hemacandra pp. 195-200, Māṇikya-candra pp. 1911, Jagannātha 62f etc.

It is also noteworthy that the Rīti-system assigns to some of the Guṇas functions which other systems assign to Alaṃkāras or poetic figures. Vāmana's aitha-guṇa kānti corresponds to figures like rasavat of the Alaṃkāra-system, while Dandin's samādhi in some cases will be equivalent to the rūpaka and analogous metaphorical figures. Vāmana's aitha-guṇa aitha-vyakti is nothing more than the svabhāvokti of Dandin, and Daṇḍin's kānti only defines the limit, as Hemacandra puts it, to the figure atiśayokti (seyam atiśa-yokter yantiana, na punar gunāntaram). On the basis of Bhāmaha's vakrokti, the later writers of the Alamkāra school, we shall see, postulate ukti-vaicutrya as the fundamental principle of all figurative expression, but this is comprehended merely as one of the excellences by Vāmana's definition of the artha-guṇa mādhurya.

It will be clear from the above, as well as from the elaborate review of the Guna-doctrine by Hemacandra (pp. 195-200) and Manikyacandra (pp. 1911) that the writers of the Rîti school, especially the followers of Dandin and Vāmana, differ widely in their attempts at defining and classifying the Gunas, and that such attempts are open to criticism. Some of Bharata's definitions, on the other hand, do not always agree with those either of Dandin or Vamana. For instance, Bharata's ojas, which consists in the use of high-sounding compound words of varied strikingness, may correspond to Dandin's ojas, but Hemacandra states that the essence of this Guna consists in imparting loftiness to an object which is low or treated with contempt. Again, Bharata's prasādu, corresponding to Dandin's samādhi, is a metaphorical mode of expression, which Vamana would include in his peculiar definition of the vakrokti-figure, and which comes generally under laksanā or upacara of later theorists. ta's udāra differs considerably from Vāmana's udāratā which does not comprehend, as Bharata's udāra does, the Rasas and Bhāvas in its scope; but it corresponds partially to Vāmana's

³⁰ For this reason Vāmana does not define the rasavat as a figure.

artha-guṇa kānti. At the same time, it would seem that, in spite of such minor discrepancies, Bharata's scheme of the Guṇas as a whole is developed to its furthest possibilities by Vāmana. That there are inevitable differences in the definition of particular Guṇas in the earlier writers on the subject, and that the whole doctrine, despite the care of its exponents, is still unsatisfactory, only indicate the fruitlessness of the efforts of early theorists in comprehending all the literary excellences of a composition within the hard-and-fast limits of a few categories, on the interpretation of which they spend so much ingenuity but on which they cannot in the nature of things arrive at any absolute agreement.

Hemacandra and Manikyacandra in their review of this doctrine cite the opinion of an authority³¹, called Mangala who, we are told, agrees with Bharata in his definition of oias and maintains with Vamana that Dandin is not right in emphasising it in the Gaudi Rīti inasmuch as it is common to all Rītis. The only other reference to this writer is made by Rajasekhara, who cites some opinions of this writer agreeing substantially with those of Vamana, and quotes at p. 14 a dictum from Mangala which occurs in a slightly different form in Vāmana i. 2. 1. From these citations by Rajasekhara it appears that Mangala, if he is not earlier in date than Vamana, belongs most probably to the same school of opinion. There can hardly be any doubt that the system existed even before Vamana gave a definite form to it, and Vāmana's systematic formulation certainly obtained for it a large number of adherents and followers, so that important later authors like Rājaśekhara; Hemacandra and Jayaratha cite with respect the opinions of the Vāmanīyas, just in the same way as they cite the Audbhatas, the followers of Vamana's contemporary and rival Udbhata.

³¹ Vāmana himself quotes some verses giving us ancient definitions of the various śabda-gunas (under iii. 1. 25).

After the Gunas. Vāmana deals with the poetic figures or Alamkaras as elements of subsidiary importance. This definite differentiation of Guna from Alamkara we meet for the first time in Vamana; for Bhamaha was indifferent to it, Dandin does not accept it, and Udbhata appears to have denied any difference32. At the outset Vamana states, no doubt, that poetry is acceptable from embellishment (alamkāra); but he is careful to explain embellishment, not in the narrow sense of poetic figure, but in the broad and primary sense of beauty or charm (kāvyam grāhyam alamkārāt, saundaryam alamkārah). He also points out that it is only in the secondary instrumental sense that the term alamkāra or embellisment is applied to simile and other poetic figures (alamkrtir alamkārah, karana-vyutpattyā punar alamkāra-śabdo'yam upamādisu vartate). In this view, Vāmana apparently develops logically Dandin's teaching; but Vāmana does not make the presence of poetic figures a necessary condition. What makes poetry acceptable, in his opinion, is the presence of charm or beauty (i. e. Alamkara in its broad sense of Saundarva) which he does not define and which is in some respects undefinable³⁸. The Rīti and its constituent Gunas come in as a sine qua non in the production of this beauty, but the poetic figures only contribute to its heighten-This distinction between the Guna and the Alamkara as to their respective position in a formal scheme of Poetics, which is vaguely hinted at by Dandin, is fully developed for the first time by Vāmana (iii. 1. 1-3). The Gunas, being essential to the Rīti, are defined as those characteristics which create the charm of poetry (kāvya-śobhāyāḥ kartāro dharmāh) -a function which is assigned to both Gunas and Alamkaras by Dandin—but Alamkāras are such ornaments as serve to enhance the charm already so produced (tad-atisaya-hetavah).

³² The distinction was established by the Dhvanyaloka.

³³ Vāmana simply says that this beauty is to be attained by avoiding Doşas and employing Gunas and Alamkāras (sa doşa-gunā-lamkāra-hānādānābhyām).

The Gunas are said to be nitya (permanent), implying that the Alamkāras are anitya (punar alumkārā anityā iti gamyate eva. Kāmadhenu com, p. 71), for there can be charm of poetry without the Alamkaras but no charm without the Gunas (tair vinā kāvya-śobhānupapatteh). In other words, the Guna stands to poetry in the sumavava-relation (see Kamadhenu on iii. 1. 4), while the Alamkara in samyoga-relation, samyoga being explained as mere conjunction and samavava implying inseparable connexion or inherence (nitya sambandha)34. To put it in the usual figurative language, the Guna is related to the 'soul' of poetry (viz. Rīti), while the Alamkara rests merely on the 'body' (viz. śabda and artha). The Alamkāra, without the Guna, cannot of itself produce the beauty of a poem, but the latter can do so without the former. Vāmana justifies at the same time the existence as such of the Alamkara as an element of poetry, and supports a phase of poetry, which is indeed admitted by Anandavardhana but not properly dealt with by him, and which is elaborated only by his follower Ruyyaka who, however, takes his inspiration on this point from the Vakroktijīvita-kāra.

Vāmana's treatment of the poetic figures is in some respects peculiar to himself in its general outline, as well as in the specific definition of individual figures. Vāmana is the only old writer who deals with the smallest number of poetic figures³⁵. He recognises only two kinds of śabdāla-mkāra, viz., yamaka (rhyming) and anuprāsa (alliteration). He rigidly excludes prahelikās and bandhas. With regard to

³⁴ This is criticised by Mammata viu, p. 470; for he maintains that Gunas like ojas and Alamkaras like anuprāsa and upamā reside in the relation of inherence (samavāya-sthiti).

³⁵ They are in their order of the treatment: yaniaka, anuprāsa, upamā, prativastūpamā, samāsokti, aprastuta-prašamsā, apahnuti, rūpaka, śleşa, vakrokti, utpreksā, atišayokti, samdeha virodha, vibhāvanā, ananvaya, upameyopamā, parivītti, krama, dīpaka, nidaršana, arthāntara-nyāsa, vyatīreka, višeşokti, vyāja-stuti, vyājokti, tulya-yogitā, ākṣepa, sahokti, samālita, and samsītt (including upamā-rūpaka and utprekṣāvavava):—30 fizu.es excluding Saṃsīsti.

the arthalamkaras, he lays down in general terms that the upamā or comparison lies at the root of all poetic figures. which are defined in relation to it and to which is given the collective name of upamā-prapañca³⁶. The importance of upamā, involved in other figures, is recognised from Bhamaha's time; and consequently this figure, which is the source of all the figures grouped together by later writers as sādršya-mūla or aupamya-garbha Alamkāras, is always given a place of honour at the beginning of most treatises on Sanskrit Poetics³⁷; but Vāmana goes to the extreme of defining all figures with reference to the idea of comparison, or in terms of the relation of the upamāna and the upameya. On account of this fundamental postulate, his definitions of some of the figures differ widely from those given by other writers; and he has also to exclude such figures as paryayokta, prevas. rasavat, ūrjasvin, udātta, bhāvika and sūksma which he does not define. He gives a peculiar definition of the figure vakrokti as a mode of metaphorical expression. His viśesokti would correspond to the rūpaka of Jagannātha, and his āksepa to the pratīpa or samāsokti of some later writers. Vāmana defines apahnuti as the concealment of one thing by a similar thing with a view to impose the character of the latter on the former; in other words, the upameya is denied its nature and the upamāna is established in its place. Dandin states that denial of something and the representing of some other thing in its place constitute the figure which need not be based on aupamya; and following him, some later writers (e. g. Viśvanātha) speak of a second variety of

³⁶ The commentator explains: prativastu-pramukhänam alamkäränam upamä-garbhatväd upamä-prapañea iti vyapadesan krtah (on iv 3 1).

³⁷ upamaivāneka-prakāra-vaicitrvenālamkāra-bījabhūteti prathamam nirdijā, Ruyyaka p. 26., sādisva-viechitti-visesai rupaka dipaka dyanekālamkāra-bijatavopamāyāh prathamom nirufanam. Mallisatha p. 195. Although i maa need not be involvot in all poetic figures. Vanaras pieste to object only those figures which are based on postic competer.

apahnuti in which there is no gamyamāna aupamya or implied comparison³⁸.

(3)

This brief summary of the views of the leading authors of this school will shew that the Rīti-teachings mark a great advance on the Alamkara-doctrine in many respects. There are many points which are common to both these systems; but, by clearly defining and working out the doctrine of Rīti as that distinct characteristic of poetry which separates it from dry philosophical or technical writings, Rīti school seems to have first suggested and started enquiry (only hinted at by Bhāmaha's theory of vakrokti) as to what constitues the essential charm of poetry, and anticipated the theory of vicchitti (or ukti-vaicitrya) elaborated later by Kuntaka and other adherents of the Alamkaradoctrine. The Dhvanikāra pays an indirect compliment (iii. 52) to the Rīti school for having first perceived, however dimly, the true nature of poetry, although he does not agree with its peculiar theory of Rīti. The Rīti school also goes a step further than the Alamkara school in including Rasa among the necessary characteristics (in Kanti as an Artha-guna). It is possible that Vāmana's partiality for the drama, which he considers to be the best form of composition and from which he supposes other forms of poetry to proceed (i. 3. 30-32), led him to realise the importance of Rasa. already worked out as fundamental in the drama by the dramaturgic Rasa school, and to incorporate it in one of the essential properties of poetry (11i. 2. 15 and Vrtti). But, at the same time, it was perhaps his idea to make bis definition of poetry comprehensive enough to cover a larger field and include those instances, e.g., which develop no Rasa. The kāvya-sobha, a term which he probably borrows from Dandin (ii. 1), or saundarya which conveys the same general idea as

the word 'beauty', is regarded as the ultimate test of all poetry; and this beauty, in his opinion, agreeing with the common-sense view of the matter, is realised by carefully worked-out diction, which avoids the damaging flaws by adopting primarily the so called literary excellences, as well as the poetic figures for the secondary purpose of heightening the effect thus produced.

But the Rīti-system, in spite of Vāmana's wellreasoned formulation and the advocacy of his followers, to have wielded very great influence, never appears comparatively and its existence was short-lived. There is no doubt that like the Rasa and the Alamkarasystems, it left its unpress on later theories, but it never found a serious champion after Vamana among latter-day writers. and its theories never found unqualified acceptance. general doctrine of Riti began to be discredited and severely criticised from Anandavardhana's time as too crude an explanation of the nature of poetry; and Mammata, the foremost authority of the latest school, ingeniously combats and sets aside the leading views of Vamana.

It may, however, be noted that some of the broad principles enunciated by the Riti school have been tacitly recognised by later theorists. The importance of Riti or diction, as such, became established as a stock-idea in Poetics: but it was accepted with grave modifications. It was accepted by the Dhvani school in so fai as it contributed to the development of the rasa-dhvani, and its chief characteristic was supposed to consist in an arrangement or disposition of words or letters for that purpose⁴¹. This modification naturally diminished the value of all discussion and elaborate

³⁹ A commentator on Vāmana, named Sahadeva, tells us that Vāmana's work went out of vogue, and its tradition was restored by Bhatta Mukula (!) who obtained a copy of the work. See notes to the Kāvya-mimāmsā, ed. Gaekwad Oriental Series. p. 5.

⁴⁰ varņa-samghatanā-dharmatva, Anandavardhana p. 5, see also u. 8-11.

classification of the Rītis into different types, and the function of the three Ritis of Vamana was made practically equivalent to the three Gunas admitted by the authors of the Dhvanyāloka; but they do not yet appear to have lost all interest with later theorists. Even those writers, who do not subscribe to the doctrine either of the Rīti school or of the Dhvani school, pay considerable attention to this question. Thus, Rudrata adds lāti to the enumeration of the three Rītis of Vāmana, although by Rīti Rudraţa means a definite usage of compound words. The Agni-purana accepts this fourfold classification, but the distinction is supposed to lie not only in the length or shortness of the sentences but also in the qualities of 'softness' or 'smoothness', as well as in the prominence of metaphorical expression (upacūra). Bhoja, who carries the elaboration still further, adds two more types of Rīti to the Agni-purāna's four, viz. māgadhī and āvantikā, the former being an intermediate diction between Vaidarbhī and Păncali, and the latter forming only a khanda-riti, i. e. a defective or incomplete type. Rajasekhara in his Kavya-mimāmsā gives us the same three Rītis as Vāmana does, but in his Karpūra-manjarī he appears to speak of three Ritis. respectively named vacchomi (from Vatsagulma41), māahi (māgadhī) and pamcāliā (pāñcālī). The older Vāgbhata mentions only two Rītis, viz., pāncālī and lātīyā, the one having some compound words and the other having none; but the younger Vagbhata accepts the three Ritis of Vaniana and classifies them on the basis of the three excellences, mādhurya, ojas and prasāda, which were the only three Gunas recognised since Mammața's time. The Dhvanikāra does not discuss this question, but Anandavardhana appears to assign equal functional value to the three vittis of Udbhata and the three rītis of Vāmana, a view which Mammata enunciates thus: etās tisro vṛttayo vāmanāainām mate vaidarbhī-gaudī-pañcālyākhyā rītayo matāh.42

- 41 In Vidarbha; so this is really Vaidarbhī.
- 42 But a distinction has always been theoretically maintained

Abhinavagupta, however, thinks (p. 6) that the three Rītis of Vāmana, which, in his opinion, characterise an elevated, soft and middling theme respectively through a peculiar combination of the Guṇas, have, together with Udbhaṭa's Vṛttis, no separate existence from Guṇas and Alaṃkāras. Attention, therefore, was naturally directed to the Guṇas and Alaṃkāras more than to the Rīti itself, of which they formed, in Vāmana's opinion, the constituent elements; and the Rīti, if recognised at all, was recognised as consisting in a particular disposition of words, letters or syllables which favours the development of Rasa, and stands in the same relation to it as (in the usual figurative conceit) the conformation of the 'body' to the 'soul' (pada-samghaṭanā

between the vrtti and the rīti. The Vrttis, originally styles of dramatic composition (Bharata in 25), have been included by Udbhata (1.4f) under anuprasa or alliteration, as they are formed by a special arrangement of letters for conveying different ideas, suitable (Abhinavagupta adds, "Locana pp 5-6) to different Rasas Ruyyaka, therefore, says: vēttis tu rasa-visavo vyāpārah, tadvati punar varņa-racaneha vittih, pp. 20-21. The Riti, on the other hand, is mostly a matter of objective adjustment of the different 'excellences' of a composition, although admitting artha as an element of consideration; while the Vitti concerns itself with the psychological effect produced by the arrangement. as well as by the sense of which that arrangement is a vehicle. One and the same Riti may conceivably produce different Vittis, and the same Vrtti may be produced in different Rītis, although a fondness for symmetry led the theorists to assign a distinct Vitti to each Riti. Anandavardhana expressly distinguishes between the dramatic Vrtti and the poetical Vitti by saying that the former is dependent upon the sense, the latter upon the expression vacyastrayo vo vyavahāras tā etāķ kausikādyā vrita; ah, vācakāsrayas copanūgarikādyāķ. enhance the beauty of drama and poetry respectively by being used according to the drift of the Rasa in the composition: vittayo hi rasādi-tātparyeņa samnivistali kām api nātyusya kāvyasya ca chāyām āvahanti p. 182. Rājašekhara (Kav. mim. p. 9) sums up the differences wittily and concisely, if not accurately: intra vesa-vinyusa-kramuh pravrttih, vilāsa-vinyāsa-kramo vrttih, vacana-vinyāsa-kramo rītih. On the concept of Vitti generally see V. Raghavan, Some Concepts **p. 182-93**; *Sringāra-pr*. pp. 196-215.

rītir anga-samsthā-viśeşavat/upakartrī rasādīnām. Visvanātha ix. 1). It follows from this that the respective functions assigned to Guna and Alamkara are not in relation to the Rīti but to Rasa, which is one of the fundamental elements of poetry with the later schools. We have already noted that, after Anandavardhana, the Gunas are taken as inseparable attributes and causes of excellence (angino rasasya utkarşahetavah acala-sthitayo gunāh, Mammata viii. 1) of the Rasa or the principal poetic mood in the composition (and not, as Vāmana thinks, of the Rīti). The poetic figures, on the other hand, are only attributes of śabda and artha47, which constitute the 'body' of poetry, and therefore heighten the poetic mood or Rasa in an indirect way (ibid, vini. 2). Vāmana's ideas about 'poetic charm' are also taken as axiomatic, but they appear in later theories in a somewhat different form as the vicchitti, or vaicitrya, or kavi-praudhokti underlying all figurative expression.

In spite of these and other important contributions to the general theory of Poetics, it is obvious that the fundamental doctrine of the Rīti school could not have been accepted in its entirety. Nor could it have competed against that of the Dhvanikāra, because Vāmana comprehended poetry only from the formal point of view, whereas the former showed a deeper insight into its inner nature. The more or less objective definition of the Rīti, given by this school, was hardly enough to satisfy the search for ultimate principles. Viśvanātha, following the Dhvanikāra and Ānandavardhana in this respect, states this objection when he says that the Rīti is a particular kind of formal arrangement, a peculiar disposition or posture of parts; what is called the 'soul' or

⁴³ Mammata, we shall see, takes the Guṇa as directly related to the Rasa as the angin, and if we sometimes speak of them as belonging to sabda and artha, we do so only figuratively (upacāreṇa); but Jagannātha (pp. 33-35), going back to Vāmana's old position, combats this view and thinks that this usage is not figurative.

essence of poetry is something quite different44. Again, the analysis of the several types of diction shows considerable ingenuity indeed, but it was found almost impossible, as Dandin himself admitted very early (1. 101-2), to label and classify all the modes of poetic expression with definite and unalterable characteristics. As the Rīti school, therefore, tended to make invidious and essentially unprofitable (except as empirical facts) distinctions between the Vaidarbhi, Gaudi and other kinds of diction with regard to whose significance there was bound to be inevitable difference of opinion, it naturally provoked criticism and opposition. In the same way, the endeavour to exhaust and classify all the literary excellences and flaws within clear-cut bounds on the basis of more or less formal analysis, was sure to prove unconvincing; and a protest against minute differentiation or endless multiplication of the Gunas was rightly and definitely propounded by who (following Mammata Anandavardhana, pp. 79 f) reduced the number to three only. viz. mādhurya, ojas and prasāda, in relation to the ultimate factor of the poetic sentiment. The attempt, therefore, to stereotype the entire poetical output into so many ready-made dictions and fixed excellences, was bound ultimately to be discarded in favour of other and more penetrating principles. We shall see in the next few chapters that such a principle in poetry came to be recognised in the suggested element of Rasa, which was being already elaborated in the service of the drama and which was utilised by the Dhvani-theorists as one of the most important aesthetic foundations of poetry.

⁴⁴ yat tu vāmanenoktam—rītir ātmā kāvyasya iti, tan na, rīteh saṃghatanā-viśeṣatvūt, saṃghatanāyūś cāvayava-saṃsthāna-rūpatvāt, ātmanas ca tad-bhinnatvāt, p. 18 ed. Durgaprasada, 1915. (It will be noticed that Viśvanātha here speaks of Rīti as a kind of saṃghatanā).

CHAPTER IV

LOLLATA AND OTHERS

(The Rasa System)

(1)

While the orthodex schools of Poetics were elaborating systems of Alamkara and Riti, there flourished several writers who discussed the question of the dramatic Rasa after Bharata, and formulated explanations of the latter's much discussed sūtiu on the subject!. Their exposition, however, concerned the dramatic art, and their theories did not as yet come properly within the sphere of Poetics, which was entirely dominated by the Alanikara- and Riti-systems. The - aesthetic importance of the Rasa, therefore, was never realised, as we shall see, until it was taken up and worked into Poetics by the Dhvanikara and his tollowers. dramaturgic Rasa school, however, had in the meantime elaborated several theories of Rasa and brought it into prominence as an element of the drama; and in this way it succeeded, to a certain extent, in reacting upon and influencing the orthodox theories of Poetics, which appear to have possessed, even at an early period a limited acquaintance with Rasa, and which actually accord it a place, however small, in their general systems of Alamkara or Rīti.

This will be obvious from a reference to the views of Bhamaha and Dandin on this subject. To Bhamaha, the most important element in poetry is alamkāra or vakrokti. He does not seem to possess any clear notion of the function of Rasa in poetry, the only direct reference to it occurring in the definition of the figure rasavat which, in his opinion, must manifest the Rasas clearly (rasavad daršita-spasta-śṛṅgārādi-

¹ See above p. 20. The Sūtra runs thus. vibhāvānubhāva-vya-vhicāri-saṃyogād ra: u-mppattih.

rasam, iii. 6). The Rasa is thus included in the scope of a particular figure only and given a very subordinate place in his system². Bhāmaha seems to have been aware of the existence of the śrngūra and other dramatic Rasas; but the speculations regarding the origin and function of Rasa do not appear to have started in his time; and, in common with Dandin, he never thought it necessary to use the technical terms vibhāva, anubhāva etc., so familiar to later writers on this subject. In Bhāmaha's opinion, the Rasa need not be invariably present in poetry, but it may sometimes be delineated in some poetic figure. In i. 21, no doubt, Bhāmaha lays down that a Mahākāvya must separately depict all the Rasas: and in v. 3 he speaks of the kāvya-rasa as mitigating the rigour of the Sastras, a sentiment which is endorsed by Rudrata (xii. 1-2) and which probably inspired the dictum of Abhinavagupta that the Sastra is prabhu-sammita, while the Kāvya is jāyā-sammita. The term kāvya-rasa is used here probably to indicate 'the flavour of poetry' in an untechnical sense; but even if we read, with Abhinavagupta ("Locana p. 182), a technical meaning into it, it only shews that the earlier authors were content with assigning a pleasing but extraneous function to Rasa in poetry, although all the Rasas may be developed in the drama (i, 21).

- 2 Commenting of Bhāmaha's central verse on vakrokti (ii. 85), saişā sarvaiva vakroktir anajārtho vibhāvjate, Abhinavagupta attempts to read into it his own idea of the importance of Rasa and interprets vibhāvyate technically as pramadodyānair vibhāvatām nājate, višeyana ca bhāvjate, rasamayīktijata iti. He apparently makes Bhāmaha mean that by vakrokti, the sense of poetry is rendered into a suitable factor of Rasa, so that by using the word vibhāvyate with the technical meaning given to it Bhāmaha would imply that the Rasa as well as Alamkāra originates in vakrokti.
- 3 Such a distinction appears to be implied also in Dandin ii. 292; and one can differentiate two meanings of rasa (see below): (1) kāvyarasa, the flavour of poetry or the aesthetic delight produced by it, and (2) rasa in the technical sense of nātya-rasa. It is worthy of note that in the latter sense it is very rarely used in earlier classical poetry (except

The same remarks with regard to the recognition of Rasa apply more or less to Dandin; but Dandin seems to have been more alive to its importance than Bhamaha. Like Bhamaha, Dandin allows the Rasas to be included in figures like rasavat, which appear to have been the only means by which they could permit the Rasa to play any role in their systems. It may be contended that Dandin gives prominence to Rasa by including it in one of the essential excellences (Gunas) of the diction (Ritt), viz, in madhurya, which is defined as the establishment of Rasa in the word and in the object (vaci vastuny api rasa-sthitth, i. 51); but from it, 292 it appears that Dandin means by the term Rasa in the madhuryaguna to connote absence of vulgarity (agrāmyatva)⁵, and does not contemplate the inclusion of Rasa in the technical sense. The madhurya-guna, according to Dandin (i.517), may appear in two different aspects, in so far as it creates vag-rasa and vastu-rasa, the former consisting of repetition of similar sounds (stutyanuprasa)? and the latter connoting absence of

perhaps in Magha). This kan co-tasa in its essence is not very different troin Bhanisha's vakroku, for it is possibly a find of heightened expression inconsistent with commonplace utterance. The word rasa must be taken in this untechnical sense when one meets with it in early classics and in such expressions as rasavar or rasa, aha in Dandin.

- 4 Jacobi in ZDMG lvi, 1502, p 401 tn
- 5 Strictly speaking, grāmva is not 'sulgar' in its usual restricted sense, although Dandin seems to bring under its connotation the aslīta or the indecent. It means 'the low', 'the rustic', or 'the common', as opposed to the noble or the refined, and probably corresponds to the French word vulgaire.
- 6 This is made clear by the Hrdayangama commentary on this point: madharya-gane pradarsitah subdurthayor a-grumyataya jato raso vakvasya bhavati, alamkarataya nirdistam rasavattvam astarasayattam (p. 167), the last part of the passage calling attention to the fact that the only cases where the eight (dramatic) rasas are admitted by Dandin occur in connexion with his inclusion of the rasas in figures like rasavat. In i 64 Dandin speaks of agramya artha as rasavaha.
- 7 See above p. 80, fn 11. Dandin speaks of anuprasa as rasavaho in this sense in the same context (i. 52).

vulgarity (agrāmyatva). Thus, Hemacandra explains (p. 198) the Rasa in Daṇḍin's mādhurya. according as it resides in the vāk or vastu in this way: śruti-varṇānuprāsābhyām vāgrasaḥ...... agrāmyābhidheyatayā tu vastu-rasaḥ. Thus, the Rasa in Daṇḍin's mādhurya has a distinct connotation which separates it from the technical dramatic Rasa of the Rasa school.

At the same time it cannot be affirmed that Dandin was entirely ignorant of the concept of Rasa as elaborated by Bharata and his followers. He declares (i. 18) that a Mahā-kāvya should invariably depict rasa and bhāva; so does Bhāmaha (i. 21). His treatment of the figures rasavat, preyas and ūrjasvin (ii. 280-87) gives a much clearer indication of his undoubted acquaintance with the eight recognised Rasas, all of which he enumerates by their respective names, and four of which (viz. śṛṅgāra, raudra, vīra and karuna) he illustrates as elements of the poetic figures under discussion. If we are to accept Abhinavagupt's statement¹⁰,

- 8 With this explanation Māņikyacandra agrees: stuti-varņānuprā-sāblijām vāg-rasah, agrāmyatayā tu vastu-rasah, ittham vaso dvedhā (p. 189, ed. Ānardāstama).
- 9 A similar untechnical use of the term rava (which, however, Dandin does not explain, as he does in this case) is to be found in in149 (or iv. 26, Madras ed) where the phrase girām rasah (=vāgrasah) is interpreted by Taruṇavācaspati merely as sādhutvam. The modern commentators, misled, no doubt, by their own idea of the importance of Rasa, read into Daṇdin their own ideas on the subject. Dandin nowhere speaks of the suggestion of Rasa (rasa-dhvani) as the 'soul' of poetry, but Premacandra, commenting on i. 10, reads this into Daṇdin. The artha-rasa in 1. 62 seems also to have a distinct reference to agrām) atā.
- 10 On Bharata vi, partially reproduced by Hemacandia p. 571. The text of Abhinava's valuable commentary on Bharata's rusa-sūtra, so far as it is relevant to the theories on Rasa discussed below, has been published as an appendix to S. K. De, Theory of Rasa in Str Asutosh Mookerjee Silver Jubilee Commemoration Volume (Orientalia, vol. iii 1922). It is cited below as "Abh. on Bh.," with references to the pages of the article, which has been largely utilised in this chapter. It is reprinted in S. K. De, Some Problems, pp. 219-35.

Dandin's conception of Rasa is similar to that of Bhatta Lollata (which we shall deal with presently), and he believes therefore in the development of Rasa as an effect from the vibhavas and anubhavas. Dandin's somewhat meagre treatment hardly justifies us in making a definite assumption on this point, but we may assume that Dandin apparently speaks of Rasas like śrngāra or raudra being developed as effects from such permanent moods as rate or keodha, For, speaking of the figure rasavat which should possess the characteristic of manifesting the Rasas. he gives an example of the manifestation of spingara in such a figure with the remark: ratih śringāratām gatā / rūpabāhulya-yogena (a. 281). Similarly, with reference to the development of raudra from krodha, he says: ity āruhya param koţım krodho raudiātmatām gatah (11. 283). But the Rasa in these figures is subordinate to the expressed figure itself of which it serves as a means of embellishment (alamkāratayā smṛtam); in other words, the Rasa is developed not for its own sake but as increasing the beauty of expression. It would seem, therefore, that Dandin was, to some extent, cognisant of rasa and bhava, but he could not give it a place in his system except as an embellishment of the language or of the sense; and this objective view of the function of Rasa, if we may presume it in these early authors, was apparently responsible for this subordinate position given to it by the Alamkara and Rīti systems.

Although Vāmana improves upon Daṇḍin's system in other respects, he does not seem to have gone further in the treatment of Rasa. His idea of making all poetic figures an aspect of metaphorical expression precludes him from defining the figure rasavat, but he attempts to include Rasa in one of the essential (nitya) characteristics of poetry, viz., in the artha-guṇa kānti, which he defines as an 'excellence of sense' in which the Rasas should be conspicuously present (dīpta-rasatvaṃ kāntiḥ, iii, 2. 15). The suggestion for this inclusion of the Rasas

in one of the excellences was probably found in Bharata's definition of the *kānti-guna*, or more directly in Bharata's peculiar definition of the *ndara-guna*, but it is clear that this certainly marks an advance upon the treatment of Dandin and Bhamaha, who include the Rasa in some of the non-essential figures.

Udbhata adheres in the main to the views of Bhamaha and deals with Rasa as an element of the some of the figures like *rasavat*. One verse, however, which occurs in the text of Udbhata published by Jacob in *JRAS*, 1897, p. 847:

rasādyadhişthitam kavyam jivad-rupataya yotah [
kathyate tad rasādinām kav ātmatvam v vavasihitam]

apparently designates. Rasa as the essence or 'soul' of poetry, without, however, setting up an aesthetic system on its basis. But the verse is quite out of place in the context in which it occurs!, and in the text published by the Nirnay Sagar Press, it is wanting, although given as a quotation (with a tad āhuh) in the accompanying commentary of Pratihārendurāja (p. 77). Misled by Jacob's text, Jacobi supposes! that Udbhaţa was the first writer to consider the question as to what constitutes the soul' of poetry and to regard Rasa as such. It is clear, however, that the verse in question is not Udbhaţa's, and cannot be reconciled either with its immediate context or with Udbhaṭa's general standpoint, as well as with his definition of rasavat. It cannot be denied at the same time that Udbhaṭa betrays an acquaintance with some theory of

Il This verse (vi. 17) occurs after the figure $k\bar{a}v_1a-linga$ (vi. 16). after the definition of which one should expect its illustration, which is given in the verse vi. 18 next after the verse in question. If Jacob's text is accepted, then the verse rasādyadhişthitam (vi. 17) would be abruptly thrust in between the definition of $k\bar{a}v_1a-linga$ and its illustration. As a matter of fact, it occurs in Pratīhārendurāja's commentary on $k\bar{a}v_1a-linga$ and is erroneously incorporated in Udbhata's text by the editor.

¹² ZDMG, 1902, p. 396.

Rasa and its technicalities using, as he does, terms like vibhāva sthāyin, sañcārin (iv. 4) and anubhāva (iv. 2), and enumerating, after Bharata, the eight orthodox nāṭya-rasas with the addition of a ninth Rasa (viz. śānta) in the category. But Udbhaṭa takes all this into account as an embellishment of an expressed figure like rasavat¹³; the Rasa is not considered on its own account, but because it helps to emphasise or constitute the charm of a particular figure. Hence Pratīhārendurāja remarks that the questic as to the nature of Rasa and Bhāva, and as to how fathey may stand as the very 'soul' of poetry is not discussed by Udbhaṭa at all, partly for fear of prolixity and partly because it is irrelevant¹⁴.

Rudraţa, on the other hand, seems to be the earliest writer who explicitly includes Rasa in his treatment of Poetics, and devotes four chapters to its discussion. At the beginning of his work, he praises the poets who have won eternal fame by composing Kāvyas enlivened by Rasa. In ch. xii he speaks of ten Rasas (adding preyas and śānta to the orthodox eight of Bharata)¹⁵, describing śrngāra (love) and the charac-

- 13 Udbhata's definitions of rasavat etc. differ from those of Bhāmaha and Dandin, and he admits a new figure, namely, samāhita. In his view, preyar consists of development of emotions like love to the extent of a Bhāva and not Rasa, rasavat occurs when Rasas are fully developed through sva-śabda, sthāyin, sañcārin, vibhāva and anubhāva; ūrjasvi is development of improper or incongruous (anaucity a-pravṛtta) Rasa or Bhāva, which would correspond to Rasābhāsa of later writers; samāhita = calming down of Rasa, Bhāva or their Ābhāsa.
- 14 Udbiata might have been one of the commentators on Bharata, and was probably conversant with Bharata's text, as his citation of a half-line (iv. 5, though it is doubtful if this is at all a kārikā-verse of Udbhata's) from Bharata vi. 15 and use of technical terms like vibhāva etc. would indicate But it does not prove that Udbhata belonged to the school of Bharata. On the other hand, Udbhata in his theoretical standpoint was undoubtedly a follower of Bhāmaha.
- 15 If Udbhaţa iv. 5 is a kārikā-verse (and not wrongly incorporated into the text from Pratīhārendurāja's commentary), then Udbhata was

teristics of the hero and heroine in that connexion. The next two chapters take up the two kinds of śrngāra (sambhoga and vipralambha—love in union and in separation) and questions cognate to each. This treatment is rounded off by a short chapter describing the nature and character of the diction (rīti) suitable to each16. It is not clear, however, as to what significance Rudrata attaches to Rasa as an element of poetry, for he is entirely silent with regard to the theoretical aspect of the question. Out of the sixteen chapters into which his work is divided, only four chapters deal with Rasa not theoretically but descriptively, while the rest of his work is taken up with the details of the poetic figures on which obviously he puts greater emphasis. Speaking of the necessity of making a poem sarasa from the standpoint of the reader, he says (xii, 1) that to those, who enjoy Rasa but fight shy of Sastra, instruction in the caturvarga is easier to impart through the medium of delectable writing; and this is the chief motive, in his opinion, for inspiring the sense of poetry with Rasa. Rudrata starts with sabda and artha as the two constituents of poetry, and elaborates his views about poetic figures as embellishment of these elements; but he does not discuss how the Rasa comes into his system, a fact which may lead one to suspect that these chapters on Rasa were probably later engraftment extraneous

the first writer to admit santa into in alas category of eight Rasas. The preyas Rasa of Rudrata is probably suggested by the poetic figure preyas admitted by Bhāmaha, Dandin and Udbhata. Rudrat appears to allude (as Nami-sādhu rightly comments) to Bharata by the term acain a in xii. 4.

the employment of compound words. He recommends the Vaidarbhī and Pāñcālī Rītis in the cases of the four Rasas, preyas, karuna, bhayānaka and adbhuta, and the Lātiyā and Gaudīvā in the case of raudra, there being apparently no fixed rule with regard to the remaining Rasas. He uses the term aucitva in this context, which anticipates the theory of Aucitya first elaborated by Anandavardhana in connexion with the delineation of Rasa.

to, if not inconsistent with, his general standpoint. Rudrața, in his theoretical tendencies, has no affinity with the Rasa school, but belongs to the Alamkāra school, a fact which would distinguish him from Rudrabhația, the keynote of whose system is to be found in the idea of Rasa. We have to this effect the testimony of Ruyyaka and Jayaratha. Ruyyaka says¹⁷ that Rudrața laid special stress on alamkāra, in which were comprised the three kinds of suggestion (dhvani), including the suggestion of Rasa, and that in figures like rasavat, the rasa and bhāva implied are taken as elements which heighten the charm of the expressed idea¹⁸.

The older writers on Poetics, therefore, before the advent of the Divani-theorists, content themselves with the working out of the outward form of expression, the 'body' of poetry, and hardly trouble themselves with the question of an ulterior aesthetic principle, the 'soul' of poetry; nor do they identify, as some later writers do. this 'soul' with the psychological factor known as Rasa. Vāmana, no doubt, starts the question and offers to solve it by declaring that the diction or Rīti is this 'soul'; but we have seen that in Vāmana's view, the Rīti is not the expression of poetic individuality but the objective beauty of representation called forth by a definite adjustment of certain fixed literary excellences. The older writers, therefore, put the greatest emphasis on the alamkāra (or poetic figure), or on the rīti (or diction in the objective sense), the advantages of which were considered sufficient for poetry;

¹⁷ ed. Kāvyamālā p. 5. Samudrabandha agrees with this view.

¹⁸ Nami-sādhu, explaining Rudrata xii. 2, states that in the opinion of his author, sahda and artha constitute the 'body' of poetry, the poetic figures take the place of artificial ornaments, while Rasa resembles natural qualities like prowess and beauty (rasās tu saundaryādaya iva sahajā guṇāḥ). But there is nothing in Rudrata which will support this description of his standpoint, especially as Rudrata can scarcely be supposed to look upon poetic figures, which are of great importance in his view of poetry, as mere artificial embellishments of poetry. See above pp. 59-60, 61.

and, cognisant as they were of that aesthetic delectableness which must be present in all poetry and which in Sanskrit goes by the name of rasa, they could not harmonise it well with their theory of externals and treated it more or less as an embellishment of the language by including it in poetic figures or by allowing it to form an element of one of the excellences of diction. This was the only way in which they could recognise Rasa. It is partly for this reason that the Dhvanikāra (iii. 52) condemns earlier theories as crude and insufficient for the purpose of explaining the nature of poetry, and expounds his own system in which the suggestion of Rasa (rasa-dhvani) plays such an important part.

(2)

The reason why Rasa was, even thus perfunctorily, admitted into the older systems appears to have been the fact that Bharata's treatment of Rasa in the drama had already established itself, having been further elaborated by a number of commentators and writers on the subject, and it naturally influenced, to a limited extent, the enquiry of early thinkers. We have already noted that Bharata's famous sūtra on Rasa'' by its ambiguity taxed the ingenuity of his followers and led to a great deal of controversy regarding its true interpretation; and as each writer tried to explain it in his own way, it gave rise to a number of theories on Rasa. There are four such theories associated with the names of Lollata, Śańkuka Bhatta Nāyaka and Abhinavagupta; but Jagannātha (Rasagaṅgādhara p. 28) spēaks of eight different interpretations.

Bhatta Lollata appears to have been one of the earliest formulators of such an explanation. His work is unfortunately lost, and very little can be gathered from the brief review

19 Viz. vibhāvānubhāva-vyabhicāri-saṃyogād rasa-nişpattih (see above p. 20), the different theories starting with the different explanations given of the terms samyoga and nispatti. Besides the vagueness of these two terms, it is noteworthy that term sthāyin or sthāyi-bhāva does not occur in this dictum.

of his opinion in Abhinavagupta's commentary on Bharata²⁰. which is copied more or less by all subsequent writers who deal with Lollata's views21. But it is clear even from this summary exposition by an adverse critic that Lollata, in explaining Bharata's sūtra, took the vibhāva as the direct cause (kārana) of Rasa, which therefore is an effect (anukārya or utpādya), and the term nispatti of Bharata should be explained as utpatti or pusti. The Rasa, found in characters like Rāma, is attributed to the actor, who imitates the characters in form, dress and action, and thereby charms the spectator. Mammata and his followers make this interpretation of Lollata's view more clear by saying that the permanent mood or sthayin is directly connected (mukhyataya vrttvā=sāksāt sambandhena) with the hero like Rāma, but it is recognised as existing in the actor through a clever imitation of the original character, this imitation being apparently the source of the charm to the spectator. The Rasa, therefore, resides in the hero; but the objection is that it is not clear how a mental state which belongs to the hero can be transferred to the actor, and how the spectator can be charmed by a which does not exist in him. The spectator's mere apprehension of the feeling imitated by the actor cannot produce even a semblance of the original feeling and consequent delight in the mind of the spectator; otherwise such a delight would be brought about even on witnessing a love-affair in the ordinary world, as distinguished from the world of poetry²².

²⁰ Abhinava's review of the opinions of Lollata, Śańkuka and Bhatta Niya'ta, which is followed by Mammata and all later writers, is extensively reproduced by Hemacandra (pp. 57-66) and Māṇikya-candra (pp. 40f, ed. Ānandaśrama). This portion of Abhinava's commentary will be found in the article already mentioned above on the Theory of Rasa (reprinted in S. K. De., Some Problems of Sanskrit Poetics, Calcutta 1959). Detailed references, therefore, are not as a rule given here.

²¹ See for instance, Mammata ch. iv, Hemacandra p. 57, Mallinatha on Vidyadhara p. 85, Govinda on Mammata p. 63 etc.

²² Govinda criticises Lollața's view thus: tad apesalam, samājikeşu

also argued that this cause-and-effect theory of Lollata cannot satisfactorily explain the relation of the vibhavas etc. to the Rasa. An effect may exist even when its efficient cause is destroyed; but as the life of the Rasa is circumscribed by the exhibition of the vibhavas, it disappears when the latter disappear, a fact which goes to prove that the Rasa must not be taken as an ordinary laukika effect²³. Again, the cause and the effect cannot be contemporaneous; if the Rasa is supposed to be an effect, its relish cannot be, as it actually is, contemporaneous with the appearance of the vibhavas. Hence Visvanātha remarks (p. 86) that if the Rasa is an effect, having for its cause the perception of the vibhavas, then at the time of the relish of Rasa the vibhavas would not be perceived; for we do not find the simultaneous perception of a cause and its effect. The perception of the touch of the sandalwood unguent and the perception of the pleasure produced thereby cannot take place simultaneously, however rapidly the one may succeed the other.

Sankuka, the next important writer on this subject mentioned by Abhinavagupta and others²⁴, therefore rejects this interpretation of the *utpatti-vādins*, who are said to follow, in their peculiar theory, the Mīmāṃsā school of philosophers. Lollața's view does not deal with Rasa as a matter of the spectator's feeling. Sankuka, on the other hand, thinks that the Rasa is not produced as an effect, but inferred by the spectator, and the inferred feeling is relished by him as Rasa. The permanent mood of the hero is inferred to exist in the actor (though not actually existing in him) by means of the vibhāvas etc., cleverly exhibited by him in acting, so as to produce an illusion of identity with the

tadabhāve tatra camatkārānubhava-virodhāt, na ca tajjāānam eva camatkāra-hetuḥ, laukika-śrɨgārādi-darśanenāpi camatkāra-prasaṅgāt (ed. Kāvyamālā 1912, p. 63).

²³ Govinda p. 69, Mallinātha pp. 87, 93-4.

²⁴ The reference to Sankuka's views is to be found in Mammata and others, as cited above in fn 21.

feelings of the hero²⁵; and the mood thus inferred, being sensed by the spectator through its exquisite beauty, adds to itself a peculiar charm²⁶, and thus develops into a relishable condition of his own mind which is called Rasa. tion of Rasa, therefore, is a process of logical inference, and the nispatti of Bharata's sūtra is explained as anumiti, the vibhavas standing to Rasa in the relation of anumapaka or gamaka to anumāpya or gamya. But the mood itself. though inferred in this way from the relation of logical major and middle terms, is yet cognised as different from the objects of ordinary inference, being inferred, as it were, by force of its connexion with the vibhavas, which factors, though artificial in themselves, are not then recognised as such. This cognition or knowledge is characterised as being based on what is called citra-turaga-nyāya (or the analogy by which a horse in a picture is called a horse), and should be differentiated from the true ('he is Rāma'), the false ('he is Rāma' with a following negation 'he is not Rāma'), the doubtful ('he may or may not be Rāma') knowledge, as well as from the knowledge of similarity ('he is like Rāma')27. The theory, however, has been discredited by later schools on the ground (as Govirda concisely puts it28) that it disregards the wellrecognised fact that the inference of a thing can never produce the same charm as direct cognition. It has also been pointed

²⁵ rāmādyahheda-bhāvitena națe tat-prakāsitair eva vibhāvādibhir anumitah, Mallinātha p. 85.

²⁶ vastu-saundarya-balād rasanīyatvena sthāyinām anyānumeyavailakṣaṇyāt Govinda p. 65, practically paraphrasing Mammata.

²⁷ As interpreted by Mammaţa as well as Abhinava p. 241. Hemacandra expanding the exposition of Abhinavapupta and Mammaţa puts it in this way: na cātra nartaka eva sukhīti pratipattiḥ, nāpyayam eva rāma iti, na cāpyayam na sukhīti, nāpi rāmaḥ syād vā na vāyam iti, na cāpi tat-sadṛṣam iti, kiṃ tu samyan-mithyā-samṣaya-sādṛṣya-pratītibhyo vilakṣaṇā citra-turagādi-nyāyena yaḥ sukhī rāma asāvayam iti pratītir asti (p. 59).

²⁸ pratyakşam eva jāānam sa-camatkāram nānumityādir iti lokaprasiddhim avadhūyānyathā-kalpane mānābhāvah, p. 65.

out that the Rasa is not capable of being cognised by the ordinary means of arriving at knowledge, for the feeling of a hero like Rāma, being past, cannot be cognised directly by the organs of sense belonging to the present 29 The-anumāna-theory is criticised elaborately in connexion with the theory of 'suggestion', coming topically within the province of the suggestion of Rasa (rasa-dhvani). We shall have occasion to deal with this aspect of the theory in its proper place; but the general argument with which it is sought to be discarded is that the vibhāvas cannot be taken as the middle term in proving the sthāyin, because the former do not stand in the same relation to the latter as the middle term (sādhana) does to the major term (sādhya), but are simply its suggestors (vyañjaka).

The vibhavas, therefore, do not constitute either the efficient cause (kāraka-hetu) or the logical cause (jñāpakahetu) of Rasa, as held respectively by Lollata and Sankuka. Apart from technicalities, Lollata's view appears to be that the spectator ascribes to the well-trained actor the same mental state as belonged to the hero, and his apprehension of this imparted feeling produces a similar feeling in his mind, causing delight. Sankuka thinks that the well-trained actor so cleverly simulates the action of the hero that the spectator apprehends the actor to be identical with the hero, and infers from this illusion the actual feeling of the hero in his own mind, being moved by the extraordinary beauty of the represented action. In both these theories, however, the difficulty remains, viz. that if Rasa is an objective entity, produced or inferred, how can it bring about a subjective feeling of relish in the audience in whom these factors (vibhāvas etc.) are presumably absent? If, on the other hand, it is supposed that the Rasa exists in the audience also, the question still remains as to how the particular feeling of a particular hero (like Rāma, who is different from or superior

²⁹ Vidyādhara p. 94.

to the spectator himself) can be relished or realised as his own by the spectator? These objections are thus ably set forth by Bhatta Nayaka30, as interpreted by Abhinavagupta in his "Locana (pp. 67-8): "If the rasa is perceived as belonging to another person, then it is a case of tāṭasthya i. e. one would not himself be personally affected by it. It is also not perceived as belonging to oneself out of poetry dealing with the deeds of heroes like Rama. If it is perceived as belonging to oneself, then origin of rasa in self is admitted. But this is not reasonable, for there is nothing there which can operate as a vibhava for the audience. If it is objected that the generalised idea of the beloved (kāntātva), which lies dormant and awakens in us germs of latent impressions, operates in the capacity of a vibhāva, then how can it be applied to the description of a deity and the like? The recollection of one's own beloved does not intervene in one's consciousness. How can vibhāvas, like the construction of a bridge over the sea, which form the attributes of an extraordinary hero like Rāma, become generalised (in the mind of an individual spectator)? One does not recollect only Rāma's energy. because it has no resemblance (to one's own energy). The rasa is not perceived when one learns it from a verbal composition, because a man would learn it in the same way from the direct observation of a pair of lovers. If it is assumed that rasa is produced, then a man would feel disinclined to tragedy, inasmuch as he finds only pain following upon the production of the pathetic mood (karuna) "181

30 Another objector to Sankuka's view appears to be Bhatta Tauta, whose opinions are summarised by Abhinava (who refers to him simply as asmad-upādhyāya) in a passage which is substantially reproduced by Hemacandra at p. 59 under Bhatta Tauta's name. See also Mānikyacandra p. 43 who draws also upon Abhinava's exposition of Tauta's view.

31 'Raso yadi para-gatatayā pratīyate, tarhi tātasthyam eva syāt. Na ca sva-gatatvena rāmādi-caritamayāt kāvyād asau pratīyate. Svātme-

Bhatta Nāyaka, therefore, attempts to refute these earlier theories and set up a peculiar doctrine of aesthetic enjoyment (bhoga) which makes the relish of Rasa possible. He argues (as interpreted by Mammata and others) that (i) Rasa cannot be produced as an effect, because the causes (namely, the vibhavas), being non-realities, cannot bring about a real effect; (ii) it cannot be inferred, because the real character (e. g. Rāma), not being before the audience, his feeling does not exist, and what does not exist cannot be inferred (na tattvato rāmasya smrtih, arupalabdhatvāt). Nor is it a case of revelation (abhivyakti) of something potentially existing $(\dot{s}akti-r\bar{u}pa)$; for in that case, the potential emotions, once awakened, would occupy their field of action in diverse degrees, thus contradicting the nature of Rasa as one. Moreover, there would be the same difficulty as to whether the Rasa is revealed another person. To solve in oneself or in these and other difficulties. Bhatta Nāyaka (as interpreted by Abhinavagupta) maintains that Rasa is enjoyed in connexion with the vibhavas through the relation of the enjoyer (bhojaka) and the enjoyed (bhojya). This school³² postulates three different functions of a word, namely, abhidhā (already admitted by the Mimāmsakas and grammarians), bhāvakatva and bhojakatva, and thus ascribes to a poem threefold potency of its own, namely, the powers

gatatvena ca pratītau svātmani rasasyotpattir evābhyupagatā syāt, sā cāyuktā, sāmājikam praty avibhāvatvāt. Kāntātvam sādhāranam vāsanā-vikāsa-hetur vibhāvanāyām prayojakam cet, devatā-varņanādau tad api katham? Na ca sva-kāntā-smaranam madhye samvedyate. Aloka - sāmānyānām ca rāmādīnām ye samudra-setu-bandhādayo vibhāvās te katham sādhāranyam bhajeyuh? Na cotsāhādi-mātram smaryate, ananurūpatvāt. Sabdād api tat-pratipattau na rasopajanah, pratyaksād iva nāyaka-mithunu-pratipattau. Ut patti-palse ca karuņa-syotpādād duḥkhitve karuna-preksāsu punar apravṛttih svāt, tan na.

32 Bhatta Nāyaka's views are set forth and criticised by Abh. on Bh. p. 244, "Locana p. 68, Mammata ch. iv, Hemacandra pp. 61 f Govinda p. 66.

of denotation, of generalisation and of enjoyment.33 The abhidhā is not merely the actual Denotation of a word, but is given an extended meaning so as to include laksanā or Indication in its scope (abhidhā lakşaṇaiva),34 thus embracing the two functions already analysed by previous speculation. It is meant probably that the Denotation (as postulated by Bhatta Nāyaka) also gives to the expressed sense a metaphorical significance as the basis of Rasa. The bhāvakatva (or rasa-bhāvanā), which, as Abhinavagupta suggests, is apparently derived from Bharata's general definition of bhava, is described as the power of generalisation which makes the vibhāvas as well as the sthāyibhāva, sensed in their general character without any reference to their specific properties. The vibhāva, Sītā, for instance, is understood through this power not as a particular individual but in the general character of a woman, and the sthāyi-bhāva (here Rāma's love towards her) is taken as love in general without any reference to the agent or the object. In this way the audience can appropriate the vibhāvas, as well as the sthāyi-bhāva, as universal. After the Rasa is thus generalised, comes its enjoyment. By the third function of bhojakatva, the sthayin is enjoyed in this general form, accompanied by the vibhavas, sensed also in a general form; and this enjoyment is described as a process of delectation similar to the enlightened, self-sufficient and blissful knowledge, arising (in the language of the Samkhya philosophers. which is borrowed by these theorists) from the prominence

- 33 T. R. Cintamani would prefer the terms signification, idealisation and illumination.
- 34 T. R. Chintamani (JOR i, 1927, p. 275 in) would read abhidhā-vilakṣaṇaiva. He thinks that having been a Mīmāṃsaka, Bhaṭṭa Nāyaka would not include Lakṣaṇā in Abhidhā. But K. P. Trivedi (Ekāvalī p. 425) reads as we do: abhidhā lakṣaṇaiva. V. Raghavan appears to agree (JOR vi, 1932. p. 211 in) that Abhidhā is "here used not in its restricted sense of Sakti but in its larger and more general meaning, viz., the poet's expression as a whole."

of the attribute of goodness (sattva) in a man, and different from what is known as wordly happiness, being divested of personal relations or interests. It is differentiated from the two kinds of knowledge, anubhava and smaraṇa; and consisting of the qualities of melting, pervading and expanding the mind, it is compared to the indescribable bliss of divine contemplation (brahmāsvāda-sacivaḥ). According to Bhaṭṭa Nāyaka, therefore, Rasa consists in the sthāyi-bhāva or the permanent mood, experienced in a generalised form in poetry and drama through the powers of abhidhā and bhāvakatva, and enjoyed by a blissful process, known as bhoga, till it is raised to a state of pleasurable relish, which is not wordly (a-laukika) but disinterested and which is akin to the philosophic meditation of Brahma.

It will be noticed that these different theories about Rasa. though applied to drama and poetry, are yet generally tinged with the doctrines of the various schools of Indian philosophy. Lollata, it is clear, is a Mīmāmsaka who believes in the farreaching function of the Denotation of a word and thinks that it is capable of expressing all other implied or suggested sense in the shape of the Rasa. Sankuka, on the other hand, is a Naiyāyika or logician who would demonstrate the Rasa by means of syllogistic reasoning. He believes that the implied Rasa can be reached by the logical process of inference from the expressed sense, although he has to admit that the inferred mood is cognised differently from the objects of ordinary inference, being sensed by the spectator through the force of its exquisite charm. In Bhatta Nayaka we mark a further development. In his theory there is not only a transition from what may be called the objective to the subjective view of Rasa, and an understanding that the whole phenomenon should be explained in terms of the spectator's inward experience, but also the fact that Bhatta Nayaka in his peculiar theory of aesthetic enjoyment (bhoga) is substantially following the teachings of the Samkhya philosophers.

We need not enter here into the details of Samkhya psychology or metaphysics, but we may indicate briefly the application of its main teachings to the conception of poetry and the artistic delight resulting from it³⁵. The purpose of evolution in Samkhya is the attainment of bhoga (experience of pleasure and pain) and apavarga (spiritual emancipation through right knowledge). The enjoyer of Rasa in poetry is like the knower of Brahma, but the aesthetic attitude is different from the philosophic. The aesthetic attitude is indeed one of samvit (or cit-svabhāvā), i.e., pure contemplation dissociated from all personal interests, and results in viśrānti or composure; but in the philosophical attitude there is complete detachment or aloofness from pleasure and pain and egoistic impulses, for the knower becomes impersonal by transcending his buddhi. This comes about through the predominance of the sattvika guna in both cases; but in the spiritual attitude the buddhi, which contains in it vāsanās or acquired impulses, modifying its intrinsic sāttvika charactor, is purged of all its egoistic tendencies, and the true knower, realising the intrinsic disparateness of prakrti and purusa, transcends the empirical plane. Such complete detachment is not possible in the aesthetic attitude. The world of poetry, being idealised, is different from the natural world and does not evoke egoistic impulses; for the objects contemplated in poetry have no reference to any one in particular but are entirely impersonal. These impersonalised forms, therefore, afford to the enjoyer of poetry escape from the ills which arise from personal relations, but they are the means only of temporary release from the natural world, for he cannot, like the ordinary man, transcend his buddhi al-The three stages in the appreciation of poetry together. which lead ultimately to the aesthetic experience of Rasa indicate that the apprehension of the meanings of words

³⁵ M. Hiriyanna, Indian Aesthetics, in Proceedings and Transactions of the First Oriental Conference, Poona, vol. ii, has dealt with the subject at some length.

(abhidhā) is not important in itself but only as a means of apprehending the generalised conceptions which are unrelated to any one in particular, the bhāvakatva being the process of such generalising, by which the factors of the feelings, as well as the feeling itself, become impersonalised. These idealised creations of poetry lead to enjoyment or bhoga, which implies that the condition produced is one of pleasure, as distinguished from the case of the natural attitude which is not always pleasurable, as well as from the spiritual attitude which is neither pleasurable nor painful.

(3)

If we may judge from the somewhat elaborate criticism levelled against Bhatta Nāyaka's theory, it seems to have produced a greater impression than earlier theories, and paved the way, no doubt, for the later theory of Abhinavagupta to whom belongs the credit of explaining the new aesthetic system of the Dhvanikāra and Ānandavardhana.

The Dhvanikāra, however, in his exposition of rasa-dhvani and rasa, seems to have been greatly influenced by the Dramaturgic Rasa school. Bharata had declared that the business of the drama was to evolve one or more of the eight Rasas; and therefore a more or less elaborate psychology of human sentiments had been analysed in the service of the dramatic art even before poetic theories began to be seriously discussed. Bharata's ideas on these psychological processes and on Rasa, which is the final internal experience consisting in the consciousness of a certain condition of the ego, were elaborated by his commentators and followers, until the Dhvanikāra, followed by Anandavardhana and Abhinavagupta, came into the field. From the earlier drama and dramatic theory, the idea of Rasa was naturally taken over to poetry and poetic theory; and as the transition from naïve to sentimental poetry was accomplished, the theorists went a step further and erected Rasa into one of its essential foundations. Anandavardhana is quite explicit on this point.

when he says (p. 181): etac ca rasādi-tātparyeṇa kāvyanibandhanam bharatādāvapi suprasiddham eva. In other words, what was already well established in the drama by Bharata and others thus found its way into poetry, profoundly modifying, as it did, the entire conception of the Kavva³⁶. From his extensive literary and philosophical studies as well as from his interest in the work of Bharata and his followers. Abhinavagupta goes further and lays down: nātyāt samudayarūpād rasali, rasa-samudayo hi nātyam; na nātya eva ca rasaļi kāvye'pi nātyāmāna eva rasah kāvyārathah. These theorists realised that no system of Poetics, as no system of Dramaturgy. can ever ignore the feelings, moods and sentiments, and must find an important place for Rasa, the manifestation of which is as much the business of poetry as of the drama. Gradually stress came to be laid on the emotional mood, as well as on the imaginative thought, which the poet succeeds in communicating to us; the outward expression, on which the older writers pinned their faith so much, being regarded only as a means of suggesting or pointing to the implicit significance of such a mood in poetry.

The insufficiencies of the earlier theories on Rasa are obvious and are therefore rightly criticised by Abhinavagupta; but it was a happy idea to elaborate the theory in such a way as not only to supply these deficiencies but also to fit it well into the theory of 'suggestion' or dhvani formulated by the new school. It is not necessary for us here to enter into the details of the Dhvani-theory, which will be treated in its proper place; but we may for convenience and continuity of treatment indicate here generally how the idea of Rasa was worked up into them. The Dhvani school, in its analysis of the essentials of poetry, found that the contents of a good poem may be generally distinguished into two parts. The one

³⁶ Rudrabhatta states (i. 5) in the same way that Bharata and others have already discussed Rasa in connexion with the drama, while his own object is to apply it to the case of poetry. Cf M. Lindenau, Rasalehre, p. 2.

is that which is expressed and includes what is given in so many words; the other content is not expressed but must be added to it by the imagination of the reader or listener. The unexpressed or suggested part, which is distinctly linked up with the expressed and which is developed by a peculiar process of suggestion (vyañjanā), is taken to be the 'soul' or essence of poetry. To the grammarians and learned writers. it perhaps seemed paradoxical to state that the very essence of poetry was that which was not even expressed. On the other hand, some form of symbolical speech, in which wisdom demands that one should express oneself more in hints and suggestions than in actual words, was always in vogue, and the poets had been more or less partial to the method of speaking in metaphor or wrapping up their ideas in transparent allegory. But suggestive poetry is something different from the merely metaphorical, which Vāmana had already amply recognised and on which the Alamkara and the Riti schools had put so much emphasis. The metaphorical or the allegoric, however veiled it may be, is still in a sense express d and must be taken as such; but the suggestive is always unexpressed, and is therefore a source of greater charm by its capacity of concealment. This unexpressed or inexpressible is called into being by a particular function of suggestion, appertaining to words and their meanings, which this school postulates.

Now the unexpressed, through the suggestive power of sound or sense, may be an unexpressed thought or matter (vastu), or an unexpressed figure of speech (alaṃkāra), but in most cases it is a mood or feeling (rasa) which is directly inexpressible. The Dhvani school, therefore, took up the moods and feelings as an element of the unexpressed and tried to harmonise the idea of rasa with the theory of dhvani.³¹ It was realised that poetry was not, as Daṇḍin thought, the

³⁷ Anandavardhana himself says (Dhv. p. 163) that his object is not merely to establish Dhvani but also to harmonise it with Rasa.

mere clothing of agreeable ideas in agreeable language; the feelings and moods play an important part in it. But the feelings and moods are in themselves inexpressible. We can give a name to them, but naming a mood or feeling is not equivalent to expressing or developing it. At best, therefore. we can suggest it. What the poet can directly express or describe are the vibhavas etc.; but with the help of these expressed elements which must be generalised and conceived, not as they appear in the natural (laukika) world, but as they may be imagined in the world of poetry, the poet can awaken in us, through the power of suggestion inherent in words their meanings, a particular alaukika (dissociated) condition of the soul in which the relish of the feeling is possible. It is true that the poet cannot rouse the same mood or feeling as, for instance. Rāma whom he describes felt, but he can call up a reflection of it, which is similar in some respects; and the condition of the reader's soul in the enjoyment of such feeling is in poetry and drama the relish of Rasa, which can be brought into consciousness only by the power of suggestion inherent in words or ideas.

Here comes in the new colour given to the Rasa-theory by the exponents of the Dhvani school. They interpret Bharata's central dictum to mean that the Rasa is suggested by the union of the sthāyin with the vibhāvas through the relation of the suggested (vyangya) and the suggestor (vyangaka); the nispatti of Bharata, therefore, should mean abhivyakti.

The elaboration of the Rasa-theory, however, by this school in the direct tradition of Lollata, Sankuka and Bhatta Nāyaka, is associated by Mammata and others with the name of Abhinavagupta³⁸. Commenting on Bhatta Nāyaka's theory, Abhinava points out that there is no need, as there is no authority, for assuming the two powers of bhāvakatva and

³⁸ There is some difference in the general theoretical positions of Anandavardhana and Abhinavagupta which will be noticed later.

bhogikarana; for they are implicitly included in the idea of rasa-vyañianā and its ultimate āsvāda. Bharata's dictum kāvyārthān bhāvayantīti bhāvah implies that bhāvakatva is an inherent capacity of all bhavas, as the means of bringing into consciousness the sense of poetry, the term sense indicating here the principal sense consisting of the relish of Rasa, Hence the sthayin, together with the vyabhicarin, being bhavas themselves, bring into existence through this inherent power the extraordinary relishable sense of poetry, cognised in a general or impersonalised form. In this way, the sthayin may be regarded as the bhāvaka or nispādaka of Rasa; and this so-called bhavakatva, according to Abhinava, consists in nothing more than a suitable use of Guna and Alamkara (samucita-guṇālaṃkāra-parigrahātmakam) for the ultimate purpose of awakening Rasa through the suggestive power of word Thus, partially admitting bhavana or bhavakatva and sense but explaining it somewhat differently. Abhinava turns to the other power assumed as bhoga or bhogikarana by Bhatta Nāyaka. He remarks that beyond pratīti or perception of Rasa, he is not aware of any other process called bhoga. If it is relish or enjoyment, it is already admitted as the essence of Rasa, and nothing is gained by giving it a new name. Abbinava thinks that the bhoga supposed by Bhatta Nāyaka is nothing more than the asvada or relish of Rasa, based on permanent moods like rati etc., and made possible by the suggestive power of poetry. It falls naturally, therefore, within the domain of suggestion and need not be taken as a separate function (bhogikarana-vyāpāras ça kāvyātmakarasa-visayo dhvananātmaiya).

This prātīti of Rasa, Abhinavagupta maintains, results from its abhivyakti or manifestation by the power of suggestion, and consists of a state of relish known as rasanā, āsvāda or carvaṇā. What is manifested is not the Rasa itself, but its relish; not the mood itself but its reflection in the form of a subjective condition of aesthetic enjoyment in the reader. This taste or relish partakes, no doubt, of the nature of cogni-

tion; it is nevertheless different from the ordinary laukika forms of the process, because its means (viz. the vibhāvas) are not to be taken as ordinary or laukika cause. Although Rasa requires these three factors for its manifestation and cannot exist without them, it cannot yet be regarded as an ordinary effect, and the cause-and-effect theory is inapplicable; for in the transcendental sphere of poetry, it is

39 This will make it clear why the Rasas like karuna, bibhatsa and bhajānaka, which cause pity, disgust or horror, can be termed Rasas in which enjoyment is essential. The relish of Rasa is supposed to be an extraordinary bliss, dissociated from personal interests, and not to be likened to ordinary pleasure and pain in which personal or egoistic impulses predominate. The mind is so entirely lost in its contemplation that even when the sentiment of grief or horror relished in such a state, pain is never felt, and even when felt it is a pleasurable pain. This fact is borne out by the common experience that when grief is represented on the stage, the spectator says 'I have enjoyed it'. Hence Abhinavagupta says. samājikānām harsaika-phalam nājyam na šokādi-phalam. Visvanātha similarly remarks (iii. 6-7 and Vrtti) that those very things which are called causes of pleasure and pain in the world (e.g. banishment of Sītā in the forest), when consigned to poetry and drama, possess the right to be called, in consequence of their assuming such an impersonalised form, alaukika vibhāvas etc., and from them only pleasure ensues, as it does from bites and the like in amorous dalliance. If pain were really felt, no one would have been inclined to poetry and drama (kim ca teşu yadi duhkham na ko'pi syāt tad-unmukhah). It is also maintained that tears constitute no proof that anything but pleasure is felt in poetry; for the tears that are shed by the reader are not those of pain but those of sentiment. Jagannätha's remarks in this connexion are interesting. He says (p. 26) that the shedding of tears and the like are due to the nature of the experience of particular pleasures, and not to pain. Hence in a devotee tears arise on listening to a description of the deity; in this case there is not the slightest feeling of pain. Such is the power of detachment which poetry produces that even unpleasant things like sorrow generate dissociated pleasure; and this pleasant relish of impersonalised or idealised artistic creations should be distinguished from the ordinary experiences of life.—The Natya-darpana, however, sets forth a theory (pp. 158-59) that Rasa has a touch of sorrow in it. and Bhoja in his Srngara-prakasa saya: rasa hi sukha-duhkhavastharūpāh. See V. Rāghavan. Number of Rasas (Adyar 1940), p. 155.

said, the connexion between cause and effect gives place to an imaginative system of relations, which has the power of stirring the reader's soul into Rasa. The resulting Rasa cannot be identified with the constituent vibhāvas, for the latter are not experienced separately, but the whole appears as Rasa, which is thus simple and indivisible. At the time of relish nothing else but the Rasa itself is raised to our consciousness. The writers on Poetics are fond of explaining this phenomenon under the analogy of a beverage which, made up of black pepper, candied sugar, camphor and other ingredients, gives us yet a taste different from that of its constituents. The result, therefore, is an indissoluble unity of taste from which every trace of the constituent elements is obliterated.

Abhinavagupta goes a step further also in maintaining that the permanent mood (sthāyin) inferred from its laukika causes (e.g. women, garden etc.) remains in the hearts of the appreciating audience in the subtle form of latent impressions. the idea of vāsanā or latent impression having been already admitted by the philosophers. On reading a poem or witnessing a drama, this permanent mood, remaining in the form of latent impression, is suggested by the depicted vibhāvas etc., which cease to be called laukika causes but go by the name of vibhavas etc. in poetry and drama, and which are taken in their general form without specific connexions. The vibhavas, therefore, are generalised or impersonalised in the minds of the reader, and do not refer to particularities. not through the power of bhavakatva, as supposed by Bhatta Nāyaka, but generally through the suggestive power of sound and sense and specifically through a skilful use of Guna Alamkara in poetry, and clever representation in the drama. In the same way, the sthayi-bhava, which is the source of Rasa⁴⁰, is also generalised, because the germ of it is already

⁴⁰ The sthayin is so called because, in spite of its being transient like all feelings, its impression in the form of vasana or samskara is

existent in the reader's mind in the form of latent impressions; and this, together with the beauty of the generalised representation of the vibhāvas etc., removes all temporal and spatial limitations. The mood is generalised also in the sense that it refers not to any particular reader but to readers in general, so that the particular individual, while relishing it, does not think that it is relished by him alone, but by all persons of poetic sensibility. This subjective relish in the mind of the spectator or reader is known as Rasa in poetry and drama.

To state it briefly and without any technicality, there is in the mind a latent impression of feelings which we once went through (or which we acquired from previous births), and this is roused when we read a poem which describes similar By universal sympathy or community of feeling we things. become part and parcel of the same feeling and imagine ourselves in that condition. Thus the feeling is raised to a state of relish, called rasa, in which lies the essence of poetic enjoyment. It will be noticed that these theorists presuppose latent impression of experience (vāsanā) and univeral sympathy (sādhāranya ar sādhāranīkarana). Those who have not experienced the feeling of love, for instance, and have therefore no impression of experience left in them, as well as those who have no sense of community of human feelings. can never relish Rasa. The vāsanā, we are told, is natural (naisargikī) and may have been left in our mind through the samskāra of previous births, but it may also be acquired by

more or less permanent, being called up when the Rasa is cognised. Cf Prabhā p. 61: antaḥkaraṇa-pravṛtti-rūpasya ratyāder āśu-vināśatve'pi saṃskārātmanā cirakāla-sthāyitvād yāvad-rasa-pratīti-kālam anusaṃdhānāc ca sthāyitvam. But possibly it was originally called sthāyin because it constituted the permanent mood or sentiment in the composition, which nothing akin to it or opposed to it could overcome, but which could only be strengthened by other bhāvas. But the sthāyin itself is not rasa; it must be vyakti-višiṣta and vibhāvādi-melaka, and thus made carvaṇopayogī or relishable, Govinda p. 62. The ultimate relish of rasa is free from the contact of the sthāyin, as it is of the vibhāvas.

study and experience. The writers on Poetics, therefore, are merciless in their satire on dull grammarians and old Mīmāṃsakas, to whom such relish of Rasa is denied, and they declare unanimously that the rasika alone is capable of realising the rasa; for Rasa is not an objective entity which can reside in the hero or the actor, but a subjective condition realised by the reader's own capacity of aesthetic enjoyment. Thus, a degree of culture, experience and aesthetic instinct is demanded in the critic, the rasika or sahṛdaya, in conformity with this subtle conception of poetry. As Abhinavagupta puts it, adhikārī cātra vimala-pratibhāna-śāli-hṛdayaḥ, and describes such a sahṛdaya ("Locana p. 11) as yeṣāṃ kāvyānuśīlanābhyāsa-vaśād viśadībhūte mano mukure varṇanīya-tanmayībhavana-yogyatā te hṛdaya-saṃvādabhājaḥ sahṛdayāḥ.

It may be pointed out here that this subtle conception of Rasa makes it difficult to express the notion properly in Western critical terminology. The word has been translated etymologically by the terms 'flavour,' 'relish,' 'gustation,' 'taste,' 'Geschmack' or 'saveur'; but none of these renderings seems to be adequate. The simpler word 'mood', or the term 'Stimmung' used by Jacobi may be the nearest approach to it, but the concept has hardly any analogy in European critical theories. Most of the terms employed have association of subtle meanings of their own, and are therefore not strictly applicable. For instance, the word 'taste' or 'relish' though literally correct, must not be understood to imply aesthetic judgment, 'good or bad taste,' but must be taken to indicate an idea similar to what we mean when we speak of tasting food. At the same time, this realistic description must not lead us to drag it down to the level of a bodily pleasure; for this artistic pleasure is given as almost equivalent to the philosophic bliss, known as ananda, being lifte above worldly joy.

This peculiar condition of the mind, the rasa, is realised, according to Abhinavagupta, through the characteristic func-

tion of vyanjana or suggestion inherent in word and sense. The idea is elaborated by later theorists who take pains to shew that it does not not come under the province of Denotation (abhidhā), nor of Import (tātparyā), nor of Indication (lakşanā), nor of Perception (pratyakşa) nor of Inference (anumāna), nor of Reminiscence (smarana), which means of knowledge are admitted by philosophers and grammarians. Into these technicalities which properly come under the discussion of the vyañjanā-vrtti, we need not enter; but it may be noted here that Abhinava describes this abhivyakti, which is taken as synonymous with carvaṇā, as vītavighna-pratīti or realisation freed from obstacles. Jagannātha and the author of the °Prabhā commentary on Kāvya-pradīpa describe vyakti as bhagnāvaranā cit. Both these terms constitute a link connecting the present theory with the teachings of the Vedanta. The dismissal of the avidyā and the elimination of kāma and karman (interest and activity) lead us to a point of detachment where we realise the intrinsic identity of self with Brahma and apprehend the bliss or ananda resulting from such a realisation. The idea of Vecantin's Moksa, which consists of a condition. not to be produced but to be made manifest by the removal enveloping obstacles, finds an analogy in the idea of the manifestation of Rasa, implied in its abhivyakti, which consists not in the expression of anything new but in the revealing of something already existing. The brahmāsvāda is likened to the rasāsvāda because in both cases the intimate realisation comes after the limitations of the ego-centric attitude are transcended, and all separate existence is merged in the unity or harmony realised. This happens in the case of rasāsvāda when the poetic sentiment, which remains in his heart in the form of latent impression, is made to shine forth, and the spectator's mind is purged of all egoistic impulses by the force of the idealised or generalised creations of poetry, consisting of the vibhavas etc, which are therefore termed vighnāpasārakas or removers of obstacles. It is, therefore,

alaukika, being unlike the taste of interested worldly happiness and being incompassable by the ordinary processes of knowledge. Its essence consists in its relish or taste, asvada. carvanā, or rasanā; but it is a relish in which the Rasa alone. apart from its constituent elements, is raised to consciousness. It is, therefore, described as a relish in which the contemplation of anything else but Rasa is lost (vigalita-vedyāntara), or which is free from the contact of aught else perceived (vedyāntara-sparśa-śūnya), like the state of mind lost in the philosophic contemplation of Brahma. It is not capable of proof or designation and cannot be made known, because its perception is inseparable from its existence; or in other words, it is identical with the knowledge of itself. The only proof of its existence is its relish itself by the sahrdaya or the man of taste (sakala-sahrdaya-hrdaya-samvedana-sākşika); and the sahrdaya to whom alone this bliss is vouchsafed, is like the yogin or devotee who deserves this preference through his accumulated merits (punyayantah praminyanti yogiyad rasasamtatim)41.

This, in its general outline, is the Rasa-theory as finally fixed by the Dhvani school; and all later writers, from

41 The artistic attitude is, therefore, different from the natural, and more akin to the philosophic. But art affords only a temporary release from the ills of life by enabling one to transcend his personal relations or practical interests, and restores equanimity of mind (viśrānti) by leading him away from the common world and offering him another in its place. This is an attitude of pure pleasure, of disinterested contemplation (samvit), but not of true enlightenment which comes to the knower who, no longer on the empirical plane, transcends completely the sphere of pleasure as well as of pain. The attitude is variously termed camatkāra-nirveša (awakening of poetic charm), rasanā (relish), dsvāda (taste), bhoga (fruition), samāpatti (accomplishment), laya (fusion) and viśrānti (repose), which terms indicate the philosophical colouring given to the doctrine. For the idea of camatkara involved in Rasa, see S. K. De, introd. to Vakrokti-fivita (2nd ed. 1928) p. xxxvi, fn 33 and below under Jagannatha (ch. vii). See also V. Raghavan. Some Concepts, pp. 268-71.

Dhanañjaya to Jagannātha, accept, more or less, this new interpretation and attempt to work it out in detail. Mahimabhatta, who tried to demolish the Dhvani-theory, acknowledges the importance of Rasa and declares that on this point there is no difference of opinion between himself42 and the Dhvanikāra, the only difference existing with regard to the function par excellence which manifests the Rasa. Thus, an endeavour was made by the Dhvani-theorists not only to explain the concept of Rasa in terms of inward experience, but also to absorb this idea of aesthetic delectation into the new theory of Dhvani, and make it applicable to poetry as well as to the drama; and the Rasa school, properly so called, began to merge from this time onwards into the dominant Dhyani school, to the consideration of which we now turn, leaving the treatment of the later development of the Rasa-theory to a subsequent chapter.

⁴² kāvyasyātmani sangini (angini?) rasādi-rūpe na kasyacid vimatiķ, p. 22.

CHAPTER V

THE DHVANIKĀRA AND ĀNANDAVARDHANA

(The Dhvani System)

The origin of the Dhyani school, like that of other schools of Poetics, is lost in obscurity; but the first clear formulation of its theory of dhyani as a whole is to be found in the memorial verses of the Dhyanikara, whose date is unknown but who could not have been very far removed from the time of his commentator Anandavardhana. It is possible, however, that the Dhyanikāra himself is following a much older tradition. The fact that he shows himself conversant with some theory of rasa, alamkara and riti need not be cited to the credit or discredit of this conjecture; for these systems themselves cannot be traced back to any definite period of time, and there is also no conclusive evidence that the Dhvanikara was aware of the particular views of Bharata, Bhāmaha or Dandin, with whom we begin the historic period of growth of these systems. But the very first line of the first verse of the Dhvanyāloka itself states that the theory that dhvani is the essence of poetry was traditionally maintained by earlier thinkers (kāvyasyātmā dhvanir iti budhair yah samāmnātapūrvah). Accepting this statement of the Dhvanikāra, it is difficult, however, to explain why the dhvani-theory did not in the least, as the rasa-theory did to a certain influence such early writers on Poetics as Bhamaha, Dandin or Vamana. It is easy to maintain, on the other hand, that the vyanjana as a function must have been evolved by the school which set up a theory of vyangya artha or dhvani. as this function is not traceable in philosophers or philosophical grammarians before the time of Anandavardhana. Bhamaha',

Vāmana (iv. 3. 8) and other early theorists discuss or show themselves cognisant of such a 'suggested sense' in general: but they never use the terms vyanjana, or vyangya artha or dhyani, as they probably would have done if it had been so universally known or accepted as the Dhvanikāra's statement would apparently imply. But this non-recognition by other schools need not be taken as a serious argument, as it admits of several reasonable explanations. It is well known that the philosophers refuse to recognise the vyanjanā as a Vyāpāra sui generis2, and even after it was put forward by the Alamkarikas, they would explain it by another recognised function as anyathā-siddha; it is not surprising, therefore, that orthodox grammarians or philosophers should entirely ignore it. The absence of any direct reference to dhvani in early writers on Poetics may be explained by the not unlikely supposition that probably the Dhvanikara himself, who summed up and uttered the theory in a definite form, was contemporaneous with these writers, as we cannot put him much later if we are to leave sufficient margin between him and his commentator, as well as make room for intermediate scholastic activity evidenced by the recapitulation-stanzas cited by Anandavardhana in his Vrtti3. Even leaving aside this conjecture, the cases of such non-recognition are actually explained by the Dhvanikāra himself, in the verse we have already cited, as constituting really cases of half-recognition; for he seems to indicate that these early writers were cognisant of dhvani, but not having understood its nature they naïvely and uncritically looked at it from other points of view, some comprehending it in other elements of poetry, some thinking it incomprehensible, and others (like the poet Manoratha cited by Anandavardhana) going to the extreme of denying its existence altogether. the objects of the Dhvanikāra in this statement was, no doubt, to indicate that he was not putting forward something entirely

² See Jacobi in ZDMG, lvi, 1902, p. 397 fn 2, and p. 398 fn 1.

³ See vol. i. p. 108, and BSOS i, 4, 1920, pp. 7-8.

new, and to find an authority for his procedure in the implied attitude (real or imaginary) of certain older writers; but, apart from this, it is clear that although there is nothing explicit in the older writers, one can never affirm that some kind of 'suggested sense' was not known to them.

It would be extraordinary indeed that a work like Dhvanikāra's could have sprung into existence without having had a previous history, although such earlier forms of the theory as might have enabled us to trace directly its origin and growth were either not committed to writing or had disappeared in course of time; for at its first appearance as we have it in these Kārikās, we find the theory in a relatively complete shape, the outlines of which, definitely settled, may require considerable filling up but no important or substantial modification. This is probably implied by Abhinavagupta's gloss on the word paramparā in Anandavardhana's explanation of the phrase samāmnāta-pūrvah used by the Dhvanikāra with reference to the previous existence of the theory. Abhinava explains (p. 3) that the theory was stated in unbroken tradition by previous thinkers without its being discussed in particular books (avicchinnena pravāhena tair etad uktam, vināpi višista-pustakesu vivecanāt). It is true that Mukula refers (p, 21) to a theory of dhvani being newly described by some men of taste (sahrdayair nūtana-tayopavarnitasya) as something not comprehensible by the recognised function of laksanā, and does not discuss it for its over-subtlety (etac ca vidvadbhih kuśāgrayā buddhyā nirūpanīyam...ityalam

⁴ The word sahrdaya here cannot be taken (see vol. i, p. 105f) as a proper name referring to the Dhvanikāra; nor is it to be taken as a title of the propounder of the dhvani-theory. As in most of the places, it refers in general to the critics or men of taste who established the new theory, or in particular to the Dhvanikāra or Anandavardhana; and there is no need to go beyond this ordinary meaning of the term in Alamkāra literature. Possibly the reference is directly to Anandavardhana who was a contemporary of Mukula's father Kallata (see vol. i, p. 74).

ati-prasangena); but he may in this passage be directly referring to the Dhvanikāra, who for the first time probably summed up in his memorial verses the floating traditions, or to Anandavardhana to whom belonged the credit of fixing

the theory into a new and complete shape.

This conjecture about the traditional existence of the dhvani-theory in some form or other even before the Dhvanikāra receives support from the fact that the theory in its essence derived its inspiration from the works of early grammarians and their semi-philosophical speculations on speech. Originating as a theory of expression, the theory of vyanjana, no doubt, received no recognition from orthodox grammarians; but not choosing to appear as an entirely novel theory, it sought the protection of the grammarian's authority by pretending that it was founded on the analogy of their ancient sphota-theory. We have already noted the great influence of the older science of grammar on poetics, and Anandavardhana himself is careful in noting that the system demonstrated by him is built on the system of the grammarians, who were the earliest theorists to apply the term dhvani to the spoken letter which reveals the sphota. Abhinavagupta commenting on this passage, perhaps goes too far in following up, after the authority of the Vākyapadīya, all the details of the sphota-theory, but there is hardly any doubt that the writers on Poetics had this theory before them when they

⁵ See vol. 1, pp. 6-7.

⁶ prathame hi vidvāmso vaiyākaraņāḥ, vyākaraṇa-mūlatvāt sarvavidyānām. Te ca śiūyamāṇcṣu vaiṇeṣu dhvanir iti vyaharanti. Tathaivānyais tan-matānusāribhiḥ -sūribhiḥ kāvya-tattvārtha-daršibhir vācyavācaka-saṃmiśraḥ śabdūtmā kāvyam iti vyapadeśyo vyañjakatva-sāmyād
dhvanir ity uktaḥ (pp. 47-8). See "Locana on this. Cf also: pariniścita-nirapabhramśa-śabda-brahmaṇāṃ vipaścitāṃ matam āśrityaiva
pravṛtto'yaṃ dhvani-vyavahāra iti taiḥ saha kiṃ virodhāvirodhau
cintyete (p, 199). In this last paṣṣage, the reference is not to Vedānta, as
some would think, but to the grammatico-philosophical theory of
śabda-brahma. See Jacobi's note on this paṣṣage in ZDMG lvii, 1903,
p. 56 fn 1.

elaborated their own system of dhvani. The sphota, which has been likened to the neo-platonic logos, is often translated by the terms 'expression,' 'concept' or 'idea'; but none of these terms brings out its essential nature. Some philosophers propounded and the grammarians took it for granted that a word has intrinsically a word-prototype corresponding to it. The sphota is not exactly this word-prototype, but it may be explained as the sound of a word as a whole, and as conveying a meaning apart from its component letters (varnas). The sphota does not contain exactly the sounds of the word in the order peculiar to the letters, but the sounds or something corresponding to them are blended indistinguishably into a uniform whole. When a word is pronounced, its individual sounds become reflected in some degree in the order of the sphota in which the particular sounds are comprised; and as soon as the last sound dies away, the sphota, in which the idea corresponding to all these sounds is comprised, becomes manifest and raises to our consciousness the idea thus associated. The sounds of a word as a whole, therefore, and apart from those of the constituent letters, reveal the sphota.

Taking their cue from this somewhat mystical conception. the Alamkarikas developed the idea of dhyani by analogy. The several expressed parts of a poem, they held, reveal the unexpressed deeper sense, which is something singular and different from the denotative and indicative elements both in order and in essence, and which is termed the dhyani (lit. 'sound', 'echo'. 'tone') or vyangya artha (suggested sense) in poetry. The word dhvani itself, as Anandavardhana pointed out, is sometimes used by the grammarians for the word or letters which reveal the sphota. Mammata's remarks in this connexion are pertinent. In his Vitti on the definition given by him of dhyani (i. 4), he says that the dhyani is, according to the grammarians, that word which reveals the all-important sphota, inasmuch as through it arises the knowledge of the word's meaning. Others, by whom he signifies the writers on the dhvani-theory in Poetics, carry this doctrine of the gram-

marians a step further and apply the term dhvani to the meaning, as well as to the word which is capable of suggesting a meaning superseding the one which is directly expressed. Intrinsically the two theories have scarcely any mutual connexion; but what the Alamkarikas really wanted was an authority for their assumption of the power of vyanjanā, which the great grammarians did not acknowledge. The sphota-theory of the grammarians, however, presupposed something similar, for the varnas of a word reveal, as it were, the ideal word. Hence it afforded an analogy which could at least boast of the authority of the Vaiyakaranas, the prathame vidvāmsah, and which could therefore be seized upon by the Alamkarikas as the foundation of their own theory of suggestion. It may also be pointed out that the sense of 'manifestation' which exists in the vyanjana is an idea which, we have already noted, is not unfamiliar to Indian philosophical speculation. The vyañjanā does not consist in the utterance of something new, but in the manifestation of something already existing; it is, to use a familiar illustration from Indian philosophical systems, like the revealing of the already existing jar by the lamp. Although the general concept of dhvani connects itself with such half-mystical currents of thought, Anandavardhana yet takes care to point out (pp. 232-4) that this dhvani is not, as often supposed, something mystical but it is something that can be properly defined and grasped; and he has no sympathy with those schools which would dismiss it, as Kapila has dismissed the sphota from the philosophical realm, on the ground that it is something inexplicable (anākhyeya).

Although it accepted, with some modifications, the grammarian's analysis of the nature and function of speech and based its theory of *dhvani* on the analogy of the theory of *sphoţa*, the school really started independently with a distinct theory of expression of its

own, which demonstrated a function of vyaniana and vyangyārtha untraceable in earlier speculative literature. But the influence of other schools of Poetics on the composite work on the Dhyanikara and Anandayardhana cannot be ignored. The latter, if not the former, appears to be perfectly familiar with the views of Bharata, Bhāmaha, Udbhata and Vāmana, most of whom are cited directly by name; but even the Dhyanikara must have known the theories of the Rasa, Alamkāra and Rīti schools in some form or other. For, the Dhvanyāloka has two professed objects in view, viz., (1) the establishment of the theory of Dhvani and demonstration that this idea cannot be comprehended by the theories of earlier or contemporaneous schools of Poetics, and (2) an examination of the existing ideas of rasa, alamkāra, rīti, guna and dosa with a view to correlate them with the idea of dhyani, and thus by synthesis to evolve a complete and systematic scheme of Poetics. It succeeded so far in realising both these objects that not only was the concept of dhvani accepted inplicitly by almost all later writers, but the systems, which emerged after Anandavardhana and of which Mammata may be taken as the first and foremost representative, cannot be regarded strictly as constituting independent schools, nor can they be affiliated readily and entirely with the older Rasa, Alamkāra or Rīti schools. They constitute in substance a new aesthetic scheme in which the ideas of all these schools are worked and harmonised into a comprehensive doctrine, the outlines of this new adjustment being first clearly marked and the foundations firmly laid by Anandavardhana.

Starting with a theory of expression, the Dhvani school concerns itself, first of all, with the grammatico-philosophical problem about the function of words and their meaning, or in other words, about the relation of a word to that which is expressed by it. The grammarians, logicians and the Mīmām-sakas had already laid down that the function by which the primary or intrinsic meaning (mukhya or śakya artha) of a word is known as abhidhā, generally translated by the term

Denotation, which gives it its conventional significance (samketita artha). Thus, the concept of the cow is given by the word 'cow' by its power of Denotation. It has been defined as that power of a word which conveys to the understanding the meaning attached to it by convention, without the intervention of any power. This convention (samketa) consists in a particular word conveying a particular meaning (asmāc chabdād ayam artho boddhavya ityākārah śakti-grāhakah samayah), which is comprehended by observing what takes place in the world (vyavahāra). We need not concern ourselves with the question whether this sakti is isvarecchā or icchamatra (divine or human will): but there are several theories as to where this convention is to be understood, held respectively by the grammarians, logicians, Saugatas and Mimāmsakas. The writers on Poetics maintain, after the grammarians, that it has reference either to genus (jāti), individual (dravya), quality (guna) or action (kriya).

When this abhidheyārtha or the primary meaning of a word is incompatible, another power called lakṣaṇā or Indication (i. e. transference of sense) is communicated, whereby another meaning connected therewith is apprehended, either through usage (rūḍhi) or from some special motive (prayo-jana). Thus, one can say 'the country rejoices', but since the country itself cannot rejoice, it is indicated that the people of the country rejoice. This power really belongs to the sense (artha-vyāpāra), as later analysis points out, but it is attributed to words and is thus an āropita-śabdavyāpāra. That is to say (as other writers explain it) we have first śabda or the word, then its vācyārtha or direct denoted meaning, after which or in connexion with which comes the lakṣyārtha or indicated meaning through the power or Indication. It is thus sāntara (and not nirantara like abhidhā), having the

⁸ Both Mukula and Mammata (Sabda-vyāpāra°, p. 2) point out that this view of the Alamkārikas is based on the dictum catustay? **sabdānām pravrttih, occurring in the Mahābhāşya (ed. Kielhorn p. 19, l. 20).

vācvārtha coming in between; for the laksunā is resorted to when the primary sense is incompatible (bādhita) and is so far artha-nistha as based on the expsessed sense. Hence the three essential requisites of the laksanā are the incompatibility (or exhaustion) of the primary sense, the connexion of the indicated sense with the primary sense, and the reason or motive (prayojana) for resorting to it. As the Denotation is dependent on worldly convention (vyavahārīka samketa). so is the Indication (as Mammata points out) upon the special convention based on these three requisites; and as there can hardly be any indicated or transferred sense without the primary sense, the Indication is sometimes called the tail. as it were, of Denotation (abhidhā-pucchabhūtā). In fact, writers like Bhatta Nāyaka, as we have seen10, would include laksanā under abhidhā, of which it is supposed to be an extension.

The lakşaṇā being thus of a derivative nature, its relations to abhidhā have been summarised differently in different works. The Nyāya-sūtra gives an exhaustive list of the relations on account of which a word is used in a secondary or transferred sense for another (ii. 2. 63), corresponding to the lakṣaṇā of the Alaṃkārikas; but Mukula quotes the authority of Bhartṛmitra¹¹ who summarises them in a verse

- 9 šakya-vyavahita-laksyārtha-visayatvāc chabde āropita eva sa vyāpāraḥ, vastuto'rtha-nistha evety arthaḥ, tad uktam—'sāntarārtha-nisthaḥ' iti, 'Pradīpa, ed. N.S.P., 1912, p. 27.
 - 10 See above ch. iv, p. 124.
- 11 Abhidhā-vṛtti-mātṛkā p. 17. The verse is also quoted anonymously in Mammata's Sabda-vyāpāra p. 8, in Kāmadhenu p. 133 and in many other works. Abhinavagugta ("Locana p. 56) alludes to it, and discusses these five categories.—Mukula Bhaṭṭa's work consists of 15 Kārikās with prose Vṛtti. Its object is to examine the principle which should regulate words in their meanings. It includes Lakṣaṇā in Abhidhā, for it says that the functions of Abhidhā are twofold, direct and indirect, both of which lead to the understanding of the import of words. Mukula discusses Abhidhā only, but Mammata on his Sabda-vyāpāra-paricaya establishes three distinct functions of words, of which the last is Dhyani.

into five categories, viz. sambandha (connexion), sādršya (similarity), samavāva (inherence), vaiparītya (contrariety) and krivā-voga (association through action). 'The fat Devadatta does not eat in the daytime' (ping devadatto divā na bhunkte), 'the lad is a lion' (simho mānavakāh), 'the herdstation on the Ganges' (gangāyām ghoşah); 'this fool is a Brhaspati' (brhaspatir ayam mūrkhah) and 'in a great war thou art a Satrughna' (mahati samure satrughnas tvam) are given as respective instances of the usage. We need not further dilate upon these niceties of analysis, nor enter into the elaborate classifications of laksanā, but we may note here that the laksanā or transferred expression lies at the root of figures like metaphor and of metaphorical mode generally, which consist of the fancied transference of the qualities or action of one object to another. It has been pointed out that the transferred expression, resolving into the metaphorical, is the source of a particular beauty, because the special motive (prayojana) with which the poet chooses the transferred expression becomes realised along with it, without being directly or at all expressed. When we say, for instance, 'youth is the springtime of life', we mean to imply at once, without directly expressing it, the beauty, vigour or enjoyments of spring-time. The prayojana or motive, though unexpressed, is yet apprehended. This is supposed to be one of the reasons, as we shall see, why we should admit, besides Denotation and Indication, a third function of vyanjana or Suggestion, by which something not expressed is revealed.

But there is a limited class of writers who postulate another function, called tātparya or Purport, which leads us to apprehend the connexion among the meanings of the constituent words in the form of the import of the whole sentence. This function conveys the connected meaning of the several words and therefore differs from abhidhā and lakṣaṇā which convey the meaning of a particular word, the tātparyārtha being manifested, not by word, but by a whole sentence, and therefore remaining distinct from the meanings

denoted or indicated by individual words The words have. according to this view, the power of denoting or indicating things and not the connexion (anvaya) among things, which is known not from the import of words as such, but from their relations of compatibility (yogyatā), proximity (samnidhi) and expectancy (ākānkṣā). When the logical connexion or anvava is thus known, a special sense arises which is called tatparya. Mammata explains (ii. 1, Vrtti) the position of these Abhihitānvaya-vadins, as they are called, thus12: "When the meanings of the words, to be hereafter explained, are connected in accordance with expectancy, compatibility and proximity, another sense arises, called purport, which has a distinct form and which, though not constituting the sense of words is yet the sense of the sentence—this is the view of the Abhihitanvaya-vadins". The theory of this school is rejected by another school of Mīmāmsakas, called the Anvitābhidhānavādins, who deny the necessity of postulating a special function like tāt parya; for they hold that words have a power to denote not only things but also their purport or connexion To put it in another way, words do not along with them. express their sense generally but connectedly. In ordinary life, for instance, we first understand meanings from sentences, and words convey ideas not absolutely but relatively, ie., as having a connexion with one another. Mutatis mutandis, the theory would remind one of Berkeley's denial of abstract ideas.

The formulators of the dhvani-theory do not enter into these minute discussions but appear to recognise them implicitly, although most writers from the time of Mammata (who deals with these questions in his Kāvya-prakāśa as well as separately in his Śabda-vyāpāra-paricaya) start with a preliminary analysis of word-function; and some later works like Appayya's Vrtti-vārttika are devoted specially to the

¹² ākānkṣā-yogyatā-samnidhi-vasād vakṣyamāṇa-svarūpāṇām padārthānām samanvaye tātparyārtho viseṣa-vapur a-padārtho' pi vākyārthaḥ samullasatīty abhihitānvaya-vādinām matam.

subject. All writers from Anandavardhana's time accept as a rule the abhidhā and lakṣaṇā, but they are not unanimo us with regard to the tatparya as a separate function, which they take as included in the vyañjanā vṛtti, this being the third and most important function established by the Dhvani school as the theoretical foundation of dhvani or the 'suggested sense' in poetry. The vyanjanā or power suggestion is generally defined as that function of a word or its sense by which a further meaning comes into being. when the other functions, viz. abhidhā and laksanā, are exhausted in their scope. Ideas or notions are what are conveyed by words through their powers of Denotation and Indication; these, put together in a sentence, convey a complete thought through the supposed power of the sentence, styled Purport. Now, another power is postulated by which a deeper sense, the vyangya artha, is revealed, consequent upon but distinct from the simple thought¹³. All good poetry, called par excellence the dhvani-kāvya14, must have such a sense implicit in it, a sense which can only be realised by the vyanjanavrtti or power of suggestion postulated by this school.

Now the question has been animatedly discussed as to whether it is necessary to postulate this separate function of vyañjanā, or whether it may not be comprehended in other recognised functions like abhidhā or lakṣaṇā, and in other

¹³ A word (or its sense), in virtue of these three powers, is called respectively the expressive (vācaka), the indicative (lakṣaka) and the suggestive (vyanjaka); and the sense which arises is termed respectively an expressed (vācya), indicated (lakṣya) and suggested (vyangya) sense.

¹⁴ The word dhvani (lit. 'echo' or 'tone') is used almost synonymously (cf. Hemacandra p. 26) with the word vyangyārtha (suggested sense), and sometimes wrongly as co-extensive with vyanjanā, which term properly designates the process manifesting it. The dhvani-kāvya is so-called because the vyangyārtha, which predominates in it over the vācyārtha, is 'echoed' par excellence in this class of poetry. Viśvanātha (p. 198) explains the term etymologically thus: vācyād adhika-camatkārīsi vyangyārthe dhvanyate'sminn iti vyutpattyā dhvanir nāmo-ttama-kāvyam.

intellectual processes like anumāna or inference. Jayaratha cites (p. 9) a verse which enumerates twelve different ways in which the problem of Suggestion may be and perhaps was explained away; but broadly speaking, we need notice, as Anandavardhana and his followers have done, only the principal attempted explanations. The first verse of the Dhvanyāloka summarises these antagonistic views into three groups. One sceptical school entirely denies the suggested sense in poetry. A second school, which is agnostic in this respect, holds that it is beyond the province of words (kecid vācām sthitam avişaye tattvam ūcus tadīyam), and can only be perceived by a man of refined discernment (sahrdayahrdaya-samvedyam, Ananda p. 10). A third school would try to trace it back to the recognised functions like abhidhā. lakşanā and tātparya, or to some such means of knowledge as anumāna or syllogistic reasoning. These three schools naturally divide themselves into two distinct standpoints: the one absolutely denies or ignores the concept of dhvani and thus does away with the necessity of vyanjanā; the other admitting the dhvani, attempts to explain away the necessity of vyañjanā, as it is sufficiently accounted for by the ordinary recognised functions.

Against the attack of the systems which deny the existence of the suggested sense, the old argument that nothing can be denied which is not apprehended is applied; but apart from such purely scholastic objections, the real grounds for postulating the suggested sense are, the consideration, in the first place, that being a profound verity, it can positively be established by an examination of aesthetic facts as well as facts of experience; and in the second place, that there are some elements of poetry (e. g. the Rasa) which cannot be satisfactorily explained as revealed by abhidhā, lakṣaṇā. anumāna or similar other means.

This brings us to the consideration of the views of those who accept the concept of vyangya artha but dispense with the necessity of such a separate and unauthorised Vitti as

vyañjanā, which is regarded as included in other functions of sound and sense. Some Mīmāmsakas hold, for instance, that the so-called suggested sense is conveyed by the abhidhū-vrtti or the denotative power of a word. In this connexion, the dīrgha-vyāpāra-vādins15 are said to have maintained that as a single arrow, discharged by a strong man. destroys by a single movement, called velocity, the armour of the enemy, pierces through his body and takes away his life, so a single word, used by a good poet, brings before us by a single power, called abhidhā, the sense of the word, teaches us its logical connexion (anyaya) and makes us apprehend the suggested sense. The substance of this graphic description appears to be that such is the more and more exp anding function of abhidhā that it is not to be measured in the balance and confined to the single business of making us understand the samketita artha, but it is competent to express whatever sense is apprehended after a word is heard. But it is urged in reply that the abhidhā has not the power to give us the perception of a matter (vastu), an imaginative fact (alamkāra) or an emotional mood (rasa), because it ceases, in the orthodox opinion, after conveying the conventional (i. e. literal) sense, and the Rasa etc. are not matters of mere convention. Nor is the denoting, for instance, of component vibhāvas, which give rise to Rasa, a denotation of the Rasa itself; for it is acknowledged that the Rasa is not realised by a mere naming thereof but partakes of the nature of a self-manifested joy, the development of which can at most be suggested. These facts cannot be satisfactorily explained unless we assume with the dirgha-vyāpāra-vādins an all-comprehensive power for the abhidha, for which there is hardly any authority. Moreover, if we assign such extensive powers to Denotation, why even admit the power of Indication, since the sense conveyed by the latter might be understood from the Denotation itself?

¹⁵ This view is sometimes ascribed to Lollata; but see on this question vol. i, p. 36-7.

Admitting the denoted sense, therefore, strictly as that conveyed by convention, it cannot be said to be manifold. for it exhausts itself after conveying the particular conventional concept; the suggested sense, on the other hand, becomes varied in accordance with the diversity of the occasion, the speaker and similar other factors. The denoted meaning is shown to differ from the suggested (1) in point of form, for the suggested sense may sometimes be quite the opposite of the negative or positive (as the case may be) expressed sense, (2) in point of location, for the expressed sense resides in words alone, while the suggested sense may be found in the words, in their position, in their denoted meaning itself, in the affixes or suffixes, in the arrangement of letters and so forth, (3) in its effect, for the denoted sense brings a mere cognition, the suggested a surprise, (4) according to the nature of the speaker, the addressee, or the perceiver. The attempt to maintain that the suggested sense is conveyed by the tātparya or Purport, as some Naiyāyıkas hold, is similarly shown to be insufficient, for the function of the Purport is exhausted by simply making us apprehend the logical connexion of the ideas in the sentence itself and cannot, therefore, take us to the vyangyārtha, which arises after the sentence is understood.

Nor is the lakṣaṇā-vṛtti sufficient to explain the subtle power of Suggestion. Those who maintain, however, that the suggested sense is no other than the lakṣya or indicated sense are asked ("Locana p. 51) whether they consider the non-difference of Suggestion and Indication to mean (1) that the two functions are identical (tādātmya or tādrūpya). (2) that they consider the Indication to be the constant differentiating property (lakṣuṇa or vyāvartaka-dharma) of Suggestion, or (3) that the Indication is an occasional differentiating mark (upalakṣaṇa or taṭastha lakṣaṇa) of Suggestion in special cases. The Dhvanikāra and Ānandavardhana discuss these views generally (pp. 50-9), bu! Abhinavagupta deals with them somewhat elaborately.

With regard to the first of these views, viz. the tādrūpya or identity of dhvani and bhakti (by which term lakşanā is meant), the Dhvanikāra lays down that Suggestion cannot be identical with Indication, because both have properties peculiar to themselves (i. 17). Indication is based upon the consideration of the barring of the expressed sense, and consists merely in upacāra (upacāra-mātram tu bhaktih, Ananda p. 51), or, as Abhinavagupta expresses it, in the secondary application of a word (guna-vrtti). The suggested sense, on the other hand, though essentially distinct in character, does not yet cancel the expressed sense altogether. The later writers16 explain further that it is not a mere secondary application of a word through usage or special motive. For, if you say that in such a sentence as 'a herdstation on the Ganges', the supposed motive, viz. the coolness and purity of the site, is not suggested but indicated, then the notion of 'the bank', which is the real indicated sense, would become the primary meaning of the word 'Ganges' (for the motive and the secondary sense of 'bank' cannot both be indicated), and consequently would be cancelled, since there can be no Indication without the primary sense being cancelled. We must, therefore, acknowledge another indicated motive for the indication of the first motive (for there can be no indication without the supposition of an indicated motive), and a third motive again to this second indication, and so on ad infinitum. In fact, as already noted before, the prayojana or special motive is not expressed at all; if it is left unexpressed, how is it then apprehended, unless we suppose that it is suggested? It has also been demonstrated that Suggestion is based on the peculiarity of the speaker, the addressee and various other circumstances; and there is a difference as well in location, the Indication resides in a word only, the Suggestion in a word, its parts, its sense and in the style. Mammata adds that Suggestion cannot be said to be co-extensive with Indication and Denotation combined;

¹⁶ e.g. Viśvanātha in his Sāhitya-darpaņa pp. 247-48.

for it is seen to come into existence from mere letters without any specific Denotation.

The second view that Indication is the laksana or the constant differentiating characteristic of Suggestion is shewn by the Dhvanikāra to be vitiated by the logical fallacies of too wide (ativyāpti) or too narrow definition (avyūpti). This is more or less a scholastic objection, and is based on the characteristic notion of Suggestion defined by its champions; for both Anandavardhana and his commentator shew that Indication sometimes coverst a much wider, sometimes a much more limited, field than Suggestion. The vvaniana, for instance, is not accepted when the prayojana of the Indication is not charming; on the other hand, in cases of vivaksitānvapara-vācya dhvani, there is scope for Indication, for the Suggestion here is expressly based on Indication. The third view that Indication may be an occasional distinguishing mark (upalaksana) of Suggestion is not denied by the Dhvanikāra, for Suggestion may sometimes rest ultimately on Indication, e. g. those cases which are admitted by Dhyanitheorists as based on laksanā (laksanā-mūla dhvani); but this does not prove the opponent's position that Indication is identical with Suggestion.

Some of the oldest and most aggressive objectors to the admission of the vyañjanā-vṛtti are the adherent of the anumāna-theory, whose views are refuted at some length by Ānandavardhana himself. They are represented to us in later literature by Mahimabhaṭṭa in his Vyakti-viveka, a work which was written with the avowed object of establishing that the suggested sense can be arrived at by the process of syllogistic reasoning. Most of these controversies belong to the realm of scholastic speculation and are far removed from actual Poetics. We shall deal with Mahimabhaṭṭa's theory in its proper place; it will suffice here to set forth the theory in its general outline as it obtained in Ānandavardhana's time and notice the arguments with which it is sought to be disproved.

From Anandavardhana's repudiation (pp. 201 f) of the views of this school, it appears that its essential position consisted in establishing that the cognition of the unexpressed or suggested sense is nothing more than the cognition of the object of a logical conclusion, so that the relation of the suggestor and the suggested is that of the syllogistic middle and major terms (vyangya-pratītir linga-pratītir eveti lingalingi-bhava eva teşam, vyangya-vyanjaka-bhavo nūparak kaścit). One of the alleged reasons for this assumption is that the Dhvani school itself admits suggestivity as depending upon the intention of the speaker, which intention is always an object of logical conclusion. Anandavardhana, however, demonstrates that this does not affect the general position of his school. He shows that words have two different aspects. the one inferable (anumeya) and the other communicable The first, consisting of intention (vivaksā). (pratipādya). may either be the wish to utter a sound or the wish to express an idea by a word; the former, being a common characteristic of all animals, does not come within the sphere of speech. The communicable is something different from this, and consists of the idea itself which forms the object of the speaker's need of communication (pratipādyas tu prayoktur artha-pratipādana-samīhā-vişayīkṛtaḥ). It may be either expressed (vācya) or suggested (vyangya); for the speaker sometimes wishes to communicate the idea directly by its Denotation, or sometimes he wishes to do so in such a way that it is not conveyed directly in words. This last-named inner content. Anandavardhana maintains, cannot be recognised in the form of a syllogistic conclusion, but can be by some other artificial or natural relation; for words, in the form of a logical middle term, can convey that an unexpressed idea is the object of intention, but cannot convey the unexpressed idea itself (vivaksā-visayatvam hi tasyārthasya sabdair lingatayā pratiyate, na tu svarūpam). If the contrary is maintained, then, as every idea could be logically established, there would be no dispute about the correctness or falsity of an idea, any

more than about any other conclusion from a logical syllogism (yadi hi lingatayā śabdānām vyavahārah syāt, tac-chabdārthe samyan-mithyātvādi-vivādā na pravarteran). It is only when the unexpressed takes the form of the intention of the speaker that it may be a matter of ordinary inference; but the inner content of the idea itself, when unexpressed, can be communicated only by the supposition of another power like Suggestion; for the natural mode of direct expression, as well as inference, is out of the question,

With the establishment, against such hostile views, of the suggested sense and the function of Suggestion in poetry, which is variously termed vyañjanā (revealing), dhvanana (echoing), gamana (implication) or pratyāyana (acquainting), we are introduced to the special doctrine of the system. The unexpressed or the suggested sense (vyaṅgya artha), to which the name dhvani is appled when it is predominant, is definitely posed as the 'soul' or essence of poetry', and poetry is classified into three kinds in relation to the suggested sense. The best kind, specifically called dhvani-kāvya, is supposed to be that in which the suggested sense predominates and supersedes the expressed. It is thus defined by the Dhvanikāra (i. 13):

17 But the verse i. 2, in which this view is set forth appears, when literally taken, to state that "the sense which is praised by men of taste and which has been established as the soul of poesy, has two subdivisions, viz. vācya or the expressed, and pratīyamāna or the suggested". implying thereby that the artha itself is the 'soul' or essence of poetry and that it includes the vācya as well, as one of its varieties. The Dhvanikāra, therefore, apparently declares that the expressed sense is also the essence of poetry, although this, as Viévanatha objects, is opposed to his own statement in the first line of his work, which speaks of the suggested sense alone as the essence of poetry in accordance with the tradition of ancient thinkers. Abhinavagupta tries to reconcile these two apparently conflicting dicta by supposing that the real object of the Dhyanikara in i. 2 is to distinguish between the racya and the prasiyamana sense, and not to establish both as the 'soul' of poetry. The objection is really over-fastidious; for it can be easily shown that in the elaboration of the theory, the suggested sense alone is throughout taken as the atman.

"The learned call that particular kind of poetry dhyani in which the (expressed) word and sense, subordinating themselves, manifest that (other suggested) sense"18. This is par excellence Suggestive Poetry, and therefore pointedly called dhvani10. The second class of poetry, in which the suggested sense is not predominant but subordinate, is called gunībhūtavyangya kāvya or Poetry of Subordinated Suggestion²⁰. This Subordination consists in the suggested sense being either of equal or inferior prominence. It has been classified elaborately, if not logically, on the hint furnished by the Dhvanyāloka itself, into eight varieties, according as the suggested sense is (1) ancillary, (2) hinted by tone or gesture, (3) subservient to the completion of the expressed sense, (4) of doubtful prominence, (5) of equal prominence, (6) obscure, (7) unconcealed, or (8) not charming. That poetry, which is without any suggested element, is reckoned as the third and lowest kind, being merely 'pictorial in word' or 'pictorial in sense', and is called citra or Pictorial Poetry²¹. In it could be included all verse which, on account of sound or magnificence of pictorial representation, or some such mechanical means, flatter the ear and is considered worthy of admiration. Under it also comes the whole body of expressed poetic figures (alamkaranibandho 'yah sa citra-vişayo matah, cited p. 221), which, containing no suggestive element, appeal by their turns of

¹⁸ yatrārthah sabdo vā tam artham upasarjanīkīta-svārthau vyanktah, kāvya-višesah sa dhvanır iti sūrībhih kathitah //. Here tam artham refers to artha defined in one of the pravious verses, e.g. in i. 4.

¹⁹ For the etymology of the word, see above footnote no. 14.

²⁰ Dhvanyāloka, iii. 35.

²¹ Ānandavardhana describes citra-kāvya thus: rasa-bhāvādi-tātparya-rahitam vyangyārtha-višeşa-prakūšuna-šakti-šūnyam ca kāvyam kevala-vācya-vūcaka-vaicitrya-mātrāšrayenopanībaddham ālekhya-pra-khyam yad avabhāsate tac citram (p. 220). Abhinavagupta derives the word in different ways: vismayakṛd-vṛttādi-vašāt...kāvyānukāritvād vā citram, ālekhya-mātratvād vā, kalā-mātratvād vā (p. 34). In deference to Ānandavardhana, Mammata speaks of citra as the third and lowest kind of poetry; but Viśvanātha altogether rejects its claim as poetry.

Anandavardhana as mere vāg-vikalpa. Ānandavardhana makes it clear that the citra-kāvya is not really fit to be called poetry, it is an imitation or copy thereof (kāvyānukāraḥ); for, strictly speaking, there can be no poetry in which there is no suggestion. It is admitted by him, however, to the category of poetry, because the poets, who are unfettered in their mode of expression, have, as a matter of fact, been found producing poetry of this kind, in which there is no intention of developing a suggested sense, but which is wholly taken up with the object of bringing about a strikingness of sound and sense.

These three types of poetry are then elaborated and classified with somewhat minute and subtle ingenuity. In this treatment, we find the characteristic passion for reducing everything to a formula and the scholastic delight in indulging in fastidious refinements; but at the same time there is a sincere effort to do justice to all the aesthetic facts, so far as they have been recognised, and to unify the various currents of ideas obtaining in different schools by synthesising them with the central principle of suggestion in poetry. We see throughout the speculations of this school an anxiety to protect itself from the reproach of being too theoretical, of ignoring or doing violence to facts; and this anxiety made the theorists evolve a scheme which should not overlook the inherited stock of notions but find a place for them in a comprehensive system. We need not take the Dhvani-theory here in all its minute details, and go through the five thousand, three hundred and fifty-five subdivisions²² of suggestive poetry, the object of which was possibly to mark out not

²² Viśvanātha gives this number. Vidyānātha in his *Pratāparudrīya* gives 1326 as the number of Suddha varieties of Dhvani, which with Miśra varieties mentioned by him, comes up to a total of 5304. Abhinavagugta works out the possible number as 7420, and indicates that this number will increase infinitely if infinite varieties of Alamkāra are taken into account.

distinct classes, but distinct properties or circumstances. But we shall attempt to trace here briefly the effort made by this school to dispose of the already accumulated matter of Poetics, represented by the notions of rasa, rīti, guṇa, doṣa and alaṃkāra, into the dhvani-system itself, by means of different arrangements or classification of the idea of suggestion.

The true poetry, the dhvani-kāvya, is divided into two broad classes, viz., avivaksita-vācya and vivaksitānyaparavācya, which two designations, clumsy as they are 13, respectively indicate their nature. In the first case, the expressed sense is not meant; in the second case, it is certainly meant but ultimately amounts to something else, viz., the unexpressed. The first is obviously based on laksanā or Indication, which the poet employs with the conscious purpose of bringing the unexpressed into comprehension; and the question involved is about words and expressions which are taken not in a literal but in a transferred sense. This poetic transference, as we have already noted before, is at the root of metaphorical expression generally, the importance of which both the Alamkara and Riti schools amply recognised and industriously examined, and which Dandin specifically included in the samādhi-guna, and Vāmana treated under the special figure vakrokti. As such, therefore, it could not be very well ignored, and by including it, as the Dhvani-theorists did, in one of the principal divisions of good poetry, they rightly assigned to it a prominent place in the new system.

The second division of suggestive poetry, the vivakşitānyapara-vācya, in which the expressed is meant but is made to resolve itself into the unexpressed, is obviously based on abhidhā or Denotation, and embraces the more important matter of Rasa, which has already been worked out by the

²³ Mahimabhatta criticises both these terms, holding that the former is nothing more than a case of bhakti or laksanā, and the latter contains an inherent contradiction (i.e., if a thing is vivaksit a or pradhāna, it cannot be anyapara).

Rasa school in the sphere of the drama. Two possible cases of this division are enumerated, viz. (1) that in which the suggested is of imperceptible process (aramlaksya-krama), i.e., where the expressed denotation brings the suggested sense imperceptibly into consciousness, and (2) that in which the suggested is of perceptible process (samlaks) a-krama). Under the first group comes the suggestion of rasa and bhaya, for it is made clear that these emotional states can be suggested only in this way. Under the second group are included the suggestions of matter (vastu) and of figure (alamkāra) by matter and figure in turns, based respectively on the power of word, or its sense, or both. Thus, the unexpressed, which is raised to comprehension by the suggestive power of a word, or its sense or both, can be an unexpressed fact or matter. an unexpressed imaginative mood which may be put into the shape of a poetic figure: but in most cases—and these cases are of primary importance in poetry—it is an unexpressed emotional mood (rasa) or feeling (bhāva), which is directly inexpressible, but which can only be suggested by an expressive word or its sense. We have already seen24 that the poet can at best directly express the three factors which bring about the Rasa, viz., the vibhava, the anubhava, and the vvabhicāri-bhāva, but not the Rasa itself as a mood which is inexpressible in its nature. At the most, we can give a name to it, e.g. we can call it love, sorrow or anger, but the mere naming of the Rasa in poetry is not capable of awakening the mood itself in the reader which consists of a Therefore, with the self-manifested state of the mind. denotation or description of these factors, the poet can only suggest the Rasa; in other words, he can call up a reflection of the mood which the reader realises as a particular condition of his own mind25. The expressed factors, the vibhavas

²⁴ See above ch. iv. p. 130.

²⁵ Abhinava explains (see above ch. iv, p. 132f) that the reader realises the feeling depicted because the artistic creations are generalised, and in this generalised form the reader realises them as his own, through

etc., are thus the suggestor or vyanjaka of the Rasa, which is the suggested or vyangya. The suggested, no doubt, depends for its manifestation on the expressed (vācyārthāpeksa), which consists of a denotation of the factors which suggest it. but it is in no way produced from it as an effect and differs entirely in essence. This suggestion is said to be 'of an imperceptible process', because the perception of the suggested Rasa by means of the various factors necessarily involves a process, but from its quickness the process is not perceived, like the process, as one writer graphically puts it. of the apparently simultaneous piercing of a hundred lotusleaves placed one upon another. At the moment of relishing a poetic mood or feeling we are so absorbed in it that we do not perceive the process which suggests it, and this subtle suggestion may fittingly be described as one of 'imperceptible process'.

By the side of the dhvani-kāvya, the true poetry, in which the suggested sense is predominant, we have poetry of secondrate excellence, designated gunībhūta-vyangya kāvya, in which the unexpressed plays a subordinate part, in so far as it serves to emphasise or embellish the expressed. Here was an opportunity of including some of the results of earlier investigations of the Alamkara and Riti schools, which indirectly recognised a suggested sense but comprehended it. consciously or unconsciously, in some expressed poetic figures. Thus, in samāsokti was admitted the apprehension of a suggested matter, in dipaka of another suggested figure, in rasavat of suggested Rasa. But in all these cases the expressed sense is meant to predominate and constitute the charm of the particular figure, the suggested sense being there only to emphasise or embellish it. Thus, in the much discussed figure rasavat, which was recognised by old Poetics and which helped to smuggle in, as it were, the idea of Rasa into their systems,

a certain community of human feelings, and because the germs of the feelings already remain in a latent form in his mind.

the moods and feelings were supposed to have been roused not for their own sake, but only to embellish the expressed thought. But this was not doing full justice to the fundamental significance of Rasa, and the point was bound to be reexamined. The Dhvani-theorists did not reject but justified this kind of poetry, in which the Rasa is suggested not directly but secondarily, and included it in their second class of poetry. The other important case of this kind, known to earlier writers, in which something remains unexpressed but is understood, occurs in very many poetic figures which depend for their charm upon another analogous figure involved in themselves. Thus, Vāmana thought that the upamā or comparison was involved in all figures, and Bhāmaha stated (in which Dandin substantially concurred) that all figures, in order to be charming, presupposed an atisavokti. which he took as being involved necessarily in what he calls vakrokti (in the sense of a poetic figure). Udbhata assigned an apparently similar function to slesa involved in some figures. Since the upamā, atišayokti and ślesa²⁶ are themselves independent figures, they can be involved in other figures as something unexpressed or suggested by the latter. But as the expressed figure is here in each case prominent, and the unexpressed merely helps to bring out its charm, these cases, in the opinion of the Dhvani-theorists, may also be fittingly relegated to this second class of poetry. In the third class are included those cases where there is no borrowed charm of a suggested sense at all, and where the appeal consists in some striking mode of direct expression, as in those figures of speech, for example, which delight us by their turns of expression alone.

Thus, the suggested sense, or the unexpressed, has three different aspects; it may either be (1) a matter or an idea (vastu-dhvani), (2) a poetic figure (alamkāra-dhvani), or (3) a

26 Udbhața, however, is said to have held that when the sleşa is involved in another figure, it predominates and dispels the apprehension of the figure itself.

mood or feeling (rasa-dhvani). The first occurs when a distinct subject or thought (a matter of fact) is suggested; the second, where the suggested sense constitutes something imaginative (not a matter of fact) which, if expressed in so many words, would assume the form of a poetic figure; and the last, where a mood or feeling, which is directly inexpressible but which can be suggested, is the principal element. The Dhvani-theory, therefore, comprehends three kinds of poetry which deal with the communication of a fact (or a thought), or of an imaginative, or of an emotional mood. Abhinavagupta points out²⁷ that this doctrine is not expressly taught in the Kārikās, but is clear from Ānandavardhana's treatment in his Vṛtti²⁸.

Anandavardhana put a special stress upon rasa-dhvani; and in spite of the fact that the citra-kāvya or the lowest class of poetry is entirely devoid of it, it seems to afford the most weighty criterion by which a poem is to be judged. In a complete scheme, no doubt, the alamkāra-dhvani and vastu-dhvani, tacitly recognised by older writers and practised by the poets, must also be justified; but the central question, which is carefully examined, is as to how a composition should help the Rasa to expression, for it is repeatedly laid down that neither the alamkāra nor mere narrative (p. 148) but the suggestion of rasa should be the guiding principle of the poet in his composition of word and sense²⁹. In other words, the rasa appears to be the centre of gravity towards

²⁷ yas tu vyācaste—'vyangyānām vastavlamkāra-rasānām mukhena' iti, sa evam prastavyah—etat tāvat tri-bhedatvam na kārikākārena kṛtam, vṛttikārena tu darsitam, Locana p. 123.

²⁸ e. g. sa hy artho vācya-sāmarthyākşiptam vastu-mātram alamkārā rasādayas cety aneka-prakāra-prabheda-prabhinno daršayişyate, p. 15.

²⁹ ayam eva hi mahākaver mukhyo vyāpāro yad rasādīn eva mukhyatayā kavyārthīkṛtya tad-vaktyanuguṇatvena śabdānām arthānāṃ copanibandhanam, p. 181; paripākavatāṃ kavīnāṃ rasādi-tātparyavirahe vyāpāra eva na šobhate, p. 221.

which everything else in a poem-riti, guna, dosa and alamkāra—should move; and stress coming to be laid on emotion in poetry, the suggestion of Rasa came to prevail over other kinds of suggestion. No doubt, it is laid down in ii. 7 that the unexpressed, apparently in all its three forms, is the angin or the principal element, and the Gunas and Alamkāras are to be esteemed in so far as they rest upon it. But this all-important angin is explained by Anandavardhana practically with special reference to Rasa (rasādi-laksanam)³⁰ and the Dhyanikara himself elesewhere discusses the merits of diction and the adjustment of words. letters and sentences with regard to their capacity of awakening the Rasa, a theme from which a theory of aucitya or propriety was evolved. Again, the Dhvanikāra lays down that the gunībhūta-vyangya class of poetry can become true poetry (dhvani-kāvya) from the consideration of its tendency, if any, of developing a Rasa (iii. 41). In several places, Anandavardhana is so much carried away by his enthusiasm for Rasa that he goes almost near stating expressly that the Rasa is in fact the essence of poetry, as it is of the drama³¹.

This borrowing from the Rasa-system—for the idea of Rasa, as Anandavardhana himself says, was already well established in the drama by Bharata and others—fills the outlines of the Dhvani-theory with a fundamentally important aesthetic content, which was not yet fully recognised in the poetic art as it had been in the dramatic. And, in this sense, the Dhvani-theory has been characterised as an extension of the Rasa-theory. But in reality it was not an extension so much as a rearrangement; for the Dhvani-theorists accept

³⁰ The term rasādi should be interpreted to mean the rasa, bhāva etc. as the angin; but the word ādi might in every case be taken to imply strictly the other two kinds of vyangya artha, viz. vastu and alamkāra, which would be as much of an angin as the rasa, although such an interpretation is doubtful from the context.

³¹ rasadāyo hi dvayor api tayoḥ (=kāvya-nātyayoḥ) jīvabhūtāḥ, p. 182. Sec also the citations in fn 29 above.

the Rasa (despite the emphasis they put upon it) as only one of the aspects of the unexpressed in poetry. Neither the Dhyanikāra nor Ānandavardhana could, at least from the standpoint of theoretic consistency, explicitly make the suggestion of Rasa the exclusive end of poetry, inasmuch as the unexpressed may in some cases be a matter or an imaginative mood, although it can be shewn that their views practically tend to such a proposition and probably inspire later theorists to work out the thesis that the Rasa alone is the essence of poetry. The essentiality thus implicitly, if not explicitly, ascribed to Rasa by the formulators of the Dhvani-theory. is, however, expressed more definitely by Abhinavagupta, who appears to have attached little weight to mere theoretical considerations. The point will be dealt with later; it will suffice here to indicate that Abhinavagupta in many places expresses himself unambiguously that the Rasa is in fact the essence of poetry; and, admitting that the unexpressed may also take the form of Vastu or Alamkara, he thinks that these two forms of suggestion terminate ultimately in the suggestion of Rasa³². We shall see that this opinion probably inspired the somewhat extreme theory of Viśvanātha that the Rasa alone constitutes the essence of poetry; but the considerations, which had wisely restrained the authors of the Dhvanyāloka from expressing it in clear terms, could not, as Jagannātha's criticism of Viśvanātha's view shews, be easily put out of the way, and recognition was refused to any further development of the theory out of itself.

The Dhvanikāra's idea was probably to make his conception of poetry wide enough to cover those varieties of

³² rasa eva vastuta ātmā, vastvalamkāra-dhvanī tu sarvathā rasam prati paryavasyete, p. 27. An almost similar view is expressed in his comment on the word ucita in Anandavardhana's exposition of the Dhvanikāra's remark on the essence of poetry: ucita-sabdena rasa-vişayam eva aucityam bhavatīti daršayan rasa-dhvaner jīvitatvam sūcayati, p. 13.

poetry which develop no Rasa, or, which develop it imperfectly, although his real leaning to Rasa possibly betraved itself in a different end, from which theorists like Visvanatha drew the inevitable logical conclusion. Nevertheless, we have here an honest attempt to do justice to facts; not only to set forth what poetry ought to be but to establish the actual facts of poetry as they appeared to these theorists. They could not ignore the fact that the matter (vastu) or the imagination (alamkāra) played an important part in some kinds of poetry, although they were alive to the consideration that the emotion (rasa) was in most cases the important criterion. This attitude towards empirical analysis is also exemplified by the anxiety which made them never spare themselves the trouble of going so far as to classify the cases of the unexpressed into more than five thousand different aspects, taking into consideration all conceivable facts and circumstances, which can be made out by a careful analysis of the forms of poetic speech. This fidelity to facts did not also allow them to ignore the aesthetic ideas of earlier speculation; for though these were found insufficient for explaining the whole problem, the concepts of rasa, riti, guna, dosa and alamkāra had to be examined and their place properly defined in the new system before it could be established as a complete scheme. One of the triumphs of this school was, no doubt, the admission of the old idea of Rasa to its full importance in the art of poetry, as in the cognate art of the drama; but the school did not forget at the same time to harmonise the other important elements into its comprehensive theory.

The justification of the Rīti is shown to consist in its relation to the suggestion of Rasa, and it is recognised in so far as it serves as a means to that end. The Dhvani-theorists, however, dispense with the somewhat useless classification of the varieties of Rīti (iii. 52, Vṛtti)³³, the nature of which

³³ The numbering of this verse is wrong in the printed text: it should have been iii. 47. It is correctly given in the 4th ed. (1935).

is not discussed by Anandavardhana, but which, Abhinava points out, is explained by the position assigned to the Guṇas (riter hi guṇesveva prayavasāyitā)³⁴. The function of the Guṇas is justified only by their part in the development of the Rasa in the theme; and from this standpoint, as we shall see presently, their minute classification is needless, Anandavardhana admitting only three Gūṇas corresponding roughly

34 Abhinava says (p. 231): yad āha—'višeşo gunātmā' (Vāmana i. 2. 3) gunās ca rasa-parvavasāyina eveti hy uktam prāg guna-nirūpane 'srngara eva madhurali' (Dhva. ii. 8, p. 79) ity atreti. Vamana has laid down that the riti is nothing more than a particular arrangement of words (visista-pada-racanā) and that the essence of this particularity of arrangement consists in the gunas. The nature and scope of the gunas, therefore, determine those of the riti. Now the Dhvanikara has pointed out in ii. 8f how the three Gunas, viz. madhurya (in śrngara), ojas (in raudra) and prasada (in all the rasas) contribute to the development of the Rasas; and his remarks regarding the Gunas apply to the Rīti, which need not be taken separately. Roughly speaking, his three Gunas correspond, therefore, to the three Rītis of Vāmana. Anandavardhana speaks of the Gunas as having samphajanā-dharmatva (p. 5), but this is probably only giving an exposition of the view of Udbhata who, according to Abhinavagupta (p. 134), had held that the Gunas are samphatanādharmali. He might mean, as Mammata does, that particular combinations of letters or compounding of words produce particular Rasas (see ii. 8f). No doubt, in iii. 5f, both the Dhvanikara and Anandavardhana speak of samghatanā in connexion with the Gunas; but they define samghatanā as depending on the length or shortness of compounds (which would correspond to the definition of Rīti given by Rudrața). The appropriateness of the samphatana depends on the ultimate object of manifesting the Rasa, as well as on the speaker and the theme. The question, therefore, resolves itself into a theory of suitability or propriety (aucitya) with regard to the disposition of words, letters and sentences, having a special reference to the Rasa (rasa-niyama), as well as to the theme in hand (vācya- or visava-nivama) and to the temper and character of the speaker (vakty-niyama). Anandavardhana expressly lays down (p. 135) that the Gunas are not equivalent to samphatanā (na guṇāḥ saṃghatanā-svarūpāḥ), nor do they depend on saṃghatanā (na ca samghafanāsrayā gunāḥ); on the other hand, the samghafanā depends on the Gunas. See S. K. De, Some Problems, pp. 91-94.

to the three Rītis of Vāmana³⁵. The relation of the Gunas to the Rasa is further made clear by drawing a sharp line of distinction between them and the Alamkaras, which also serve to embellish poetic expression. Expanding the dictum of Anandavardhana in his Vrtti on ii. 7, the later writers explain that the Gunas are the inseparable attributes of the Rasa³⁶ without which they cannot exist, and are defined in terms of their having rasa-dharmatya, rasāvyabhicāri-sthititva and rasopakārakatva. If we sometimes speak of them as belonging to a word and its sense, it is said in a secondary or figurative way (upacāra), and the old distinction between sabda-guna and artha-guna must be regarded in this light. The Alamkaras, on the other hand, belong essentially to śabda and artha, and through these means indirectly embellish the Rasa. Mammata describes their nature thus: "Poetic figures, like alliteration, simile and the rest, are those which sometimes help the existing (rasa), through the parts or members (i.e. śabda and artha), just as a necklace and the like (do to the human soul)"³⁷. The Vrtti explains³⁸: "Poetic figures are those which help the principal existing rasa. through the excellence of the parts, consisting of the expressor

³⁵ A similar function is assigned to the *vrtus* recognised by Udbhata. See p. 142, and also Abhinava's remarks on pp. 5-6.

³⁶ Anandavardhana says (11.7 Vrtti): "The gunas depend on that sense which is the principal existing content (angin) in the form of rasa etc. Those, again, which rest upon the parts or members (anga), namely the expressed word and sense, are considered to be alamkāras. The former may be compared to qualities like bravery, and the latter to ornaments like bracelet". Mammata uses the term acala-sthiti (interpreted by Govinda as aprthak-sthiti) to indicate the relation of Guna to Rasa.

³⁷ upakurvanti tam santam ye'nga-dvürena jätucit/härädivad alam-käräs te'nupräsopamädayaḥ//

³⁸ ye vācya-vācaka-lakşanāngātisaya-mukhena mukhyam rasam sambhavinam upakurvanţi te kanţhādyangānām utkarşādhāna dvārena sarīriņo py upakārakā hārādaya ivālamkārāh. Yatra nāsti raso tatroktivaicitrya-mātra-paryavasāyinah, kvacit tu santam api nopakurvanti.

(word) and the expressed (sense), just as a necklace and the like add to the excellence of the soul through the adornment of a part of the body like the neck. Where there is no rasa, these end in mere strikingness of expression (vaicitrya); and sometimes when the rasa is existing, they do not help it. The Alamkaras, therefore, have only an indirect relation to the Rasa through their capacity of embellishing the expressed śabda and artha, and add to its excellence only secondarily. They can exist without the Rasa in the form of mere strikingness of expression (ukti-vaicitrya); and even when the Rasa is present, the poetic figures are not invariably necessary. As to how the Alamkara may sometimes help the Rasa, the question is discussed by the Dhvanikāra in ii. 19-20, and four possible circumstances are said to occur (1) when the poet, not dealing with it as the main point, intends its subordination to the main theme, e.g. the Rasa (tatparatvena, nāngitvena), (2) when he accepts or rejects it as suiting the occasion (kāle graha-tyāgayoh), (3) when he does not want to carry it out effectively to the end (nāti-nirvāhe), and (4) when accomplished effectively, it is still made subservient (nirvahe'pyangatve)40.

The comparatively subsidiary position thus assigned to the Alamkāra⁴¹ must not, however, be taken to indicate any

³⁹ This is explained by the following commentary: guṇā rasam vinā nāvatisthante: guṇā rasam avasyam upakurvanti alamkārās tvavasyam nopakurvanti; guṇā rasa-dharmā ataḥ sākṣād rase tiṣṭhanti, alamkārās tu na rase sākṣāt tiṣṭhanti kim tu tvaṅga-dvāreṇa.

⁴⁰ Cf Hemacandra p. 17.

⁴¹ In Mammata's much criticised definition of poetry, therefore, the Alamkāra is taken as an accident, not as an essential; and though technically the phrase analamkṛtī punah kvāpi is open to the objections brought forward by Viśvanātha and Jagannātha, the views of the latter on the point under discussion does not differ substantially from those of Mammata. In Mammata's definition there is no direct mention of vākyārthībhūta rasa or of the vyangya sense other than the Rasa (which are there by implication), but the Gunas and Doşas are expressly mentioned. The explanation of these peculiarities of the definition must

tendency to minimise its importance, for Anandavardhana himself admits that poetry depends on it for its operation (kāvya-vṛttes tadāśrayāt). But the Alamkāra is accepted only in connexion with the angin or the principal element in poetry, which in most cases takes the form of Rasa; and Alamkāras, other than such, which are devoid of or unconnected with the suggestion of Rasa and therefore unpoetic, are in Anandavardhana's opinion, mere vāg-vikalpas. and should be included in the citra-kāvya, which is no poetry but an imitation thereof. The authors of the Dhvanyāloka ignored these because their system had no place for them; but the poet may sometimes intend not to awaken Rasa or anything else unexpressed, but to produce mere strikingness of expression in the form of a poetic figure. Such cases, therefore, should be acknowledged and analysed. We shall see that followers of the Dhvani-system like Ruyyaka realised this deficiency in the treatment of the Dhvanikara and tried to supply it by admitting the significance of such figures for poetry and analysing their content after the indication given by Kuntaka.

The view indicated above regarding the nature of the Guṇas necessarily dispenses with their endless multiplication and differentiation. Mammața and his followers, accepting the standpoint of the *Dhvanyāloka* in this respect, admit only three Guṇas, viz., mādhurya (sweetness), ojas (energy) and prasāda (lucidity), out of the ten recognised since Bharata's time. They shew elaborately that these ten are either included in the three mentioned above, or else constitute mere absence of defects, while some of them are even positive defects. In fact, these three Guṇas are defined broadly enough to include most of the ten Guṇas of Bharata, Daṇḍin and Vāmana. Thus, the mādhurya, found chiefly in the Erotic, the Pathetic and the Quietistic moods, is described

be sought in the historical development of these ideas in the earlier schools, and not in any attempt to invent an original definition. See below ch. vii.

generally as that excellence which brings delight (āhlāda) to the mind and makes it melt, as it were (druti-kārana): the oias, arising in the Heroic, the Furious and the Disgustful moods, is that property by which the mind is brilliantly expanded (vistāra-kārana); while the prasāda, found in all poetic moods, causes them to pervade the mind (vyāptikārana), like fire pervading dry fuel, or water pervading a pure piece of cloth. As they are related to the main poetic mood Rasa in the composition and made suitable to its particular kind, the classification, as given here, naturally proceeds on a psychological basis having reference to their influence on the reader's mind (so as to lead up to the particular mood), and supersedes the old differentiation resting on an adjustment of sound and sense. It will be also seen from the somewhat comprehensive definitions of the three Gunas that the ślesa, samādhi and audārya of older writers may be included in ojas, and the artha-vyakti in prasada; while saukumarya and kanti are essentially the opposites of the defects of harshness (pārusya) and vulgarity (grām) atva) respectively, and samatā or uniformity of diction may sometimes be a positive defect.

Consistently with this view of the Guṇas, the Doṣas or defects of a composition are recognised in so far as they are the repressors of the Rasa, as well as of the expressed sense. The Doṣas, therefore, convey a positive significance, like the Guṇas, in relation to the Rasa, in spite of the admitted fact that some Doṣas approach gunābhāva (negation of Guṇas) and some Guṇas approach doṣābhāva (negation of Doṣas). The punarukta or tautology, for instance, is generally a fault, but it may sometimes be an excellence if there is an apprehension of the charm of the suggested Rasa through it. The justification of the distinction between invariable (nitya) and non-invariable (anitya) fault lies in the fact that in the case of some poetic moods, we can generalise the avoidance of particular combinations as being always damaging for the effect. Thus, the Dhvanikāra points out that when love or śrāgāra

is the principal suggested mood, one should always avoid faults like unmelodiousness (*śruti-dusta*), although it is not a fault in the case of the Heroic or raudra-rasa.

The attempt, therefore, to estimate the worth of a poem by analysing two kinds of meaning the one explicit and the other implicit, and judging it by a reference to the latter rather than to the former, explains in a new light the nature and function of the Gunas and Dosas, as well as of the Alamkaras which were admitted by previous speculation, but over which there had been so much controversy. The explicit, or expressed word and sense, in which poetry is clothed constitutes its mere vesture, but this external or accidental feature alone appealed to earlier thinkers, whose attention was practically confined to the expressed sabda and artha. The Gunas and Dosas (along with the so-called Riti), as well as the Alamkāras, are only certain forms of these, being merely turns given to sabda and artha in expression, and are justified as such. They cannot, therefore, be taken as essential, for they do not touch the essence of poetry which consists of the implicit or unexpressed meaning. But at the same time, they cannot be ignored because they are the means by which the unexpressed is suggested, the expressed word and sense being the vyanjaka of the deeper vyangya sense. In classifying the implicit or the unexpressed, again, into communication of a fact (vastu-dhvani), or suggestion of an imaginative mood (alamkāra-dhvani), or manifestation of an emotional state (rasa-dhvani), the theorists recognised the truth that the essence of poetry may consist of fact, imagination or feeling as the predominant implicit factor, the outward expression being important as a means of pointing to this implicit significance. But it is also perceived that the emotional mood, which the poet succeeds in communicating to us, is of the highest importance in poetry; and stress came to be laid on this emotional mood to the extent even of ignoring the imaginative or the realistic, and poetry came to have a deeper significance as a means of emotional realisation. This the Dhvani-theorists did by emphasising the rasa-dhvani in poetry.

This, in brief, is an outline of the new system which attempts to take into consideration all the known facts and dogmas and build a compact theory of poetry on their basis, But its chief merit consists in its elaboration of the most necessary and fundamental principle of all higher poetry, viz, the art of suggestion, which should lead the reader through diverse routes from that which is distinctly expressed to that which is left unexpressed. With the arrival at this point, one discovers the real significance of a poem and appreciates the taste or relish of the underlying poetic sentiment, which is in reality inexpressible. The ornamental fitting out of thought or word, as well as the literary excellences of structure or style, everything contributes towards this end. In this connexion, we must not mistake this suggestion to be a form of quiet hinting, or of absolute silence, such as we find in some modern poetic mystics, or that particular train of thought which holds that all things have their being in the unexpressed and resolve themselves into the indeterminable. Sanskrit poetry does not aim at leaving the unexpressed to be darkly gathered, nor does the theory of Poetics regard it as The unexpressed is bound up by means indeterminate. of definite links with the expressed, without which it cannot exist; but it is wrapped up in such a manner as to make it possible only for the initiated in the poetic hieroglyphics to comprehend it in its subtlety. unexpressed is not understood by those who know grammar and lexicon, but only by men of taste and literary instinct who know the essence of poetry. It is the province of the sahrdaya, the connoisseur, who is expert in discerning through the intricate meshes of veiled word and sense into the aesthetic relish of deeper significance, in which the pleasure of the beautiful is mixed up with the pleasure arising from the fineness of the problem itself.

This general scheme of Poetics outlined by the Dhvani

school, in spite of the loopholes that may be detected in the doctrinal edifice, is accepted as canonical by all important writers coming after Anandavardhana. Here and there an isolated theorist arose who dared to question the general creed, but he was at once put down as a heretic and condemned to neglect and oblivion. The immediately following systems of the Vakroktijīvita-kāra and the Vyaktiviveka-kāra were. in spite of their able and ingenious efforts, unable to supplant the Dhvani-theory; and, finding no strong adherents. themselves languished and died out. These views are taken notice of by later writers only for the purpose of refuting them. Bhatta Nāyaka, judging from the long quotations from his lost work in Abhinavagupta and others, seems to have made a greater impression; but even he does not appear to have been very successful. All these writers, no doubt, accept the concept of a suggested sense, but when they endeavour to explain it in a different way, they could hardly find a patient hearing. Even Viśvanātha's attempt to push the theory to its logical extreme did not meet with universal approval. The labours, therefore, of all later writers, typified by Mammata, consisted generally in working out the details of the Dhyani-theory and the scheme of Poetics standardised on its basis; and they spent all their fine scholastic powers in refining and explaining but hardly in adding anything of abiding interest. No other work on Sanskrit Poetics has indeed exerted so much influence as the Dhvanyāloka, which brought to a focus the tentative efforts of earlier thinkers, and by its thoroughness and masterly exposition eclipsed all its predecessors, dominating, as it did, thoughts of generations of theorists even down to the present time.

CHAPTER VI

ABHINAVAGUPTA AND THE REACTIONARY SYSTEMS

(1)

Abhinavagupta

The importance of Abhinavagupta as a writer on Sanskrit Poetics lies in his learned exposition of the Dhvani-theory in his well known commentary on the text of Anandavardhana; and his erudition, reputation and influence as a great scholar and philosophical writer of his generation, no doubt, added weight to his championship of the theory, and contributed a great deal to its ultimate exclusive acceptance in later Poetics. His theoretical standpoint, however, does not differ, except in one material point which will be dealt with presently, from that of the formulators of the Dhvanisystem; and he may be fairly regarded as belonging to that group of faithful commentators who are more anxious to interpret than to incorporate new ideas into the system they comment upon. On the other hand, Abhinavagupta was also greatly interested in the dramaturgic work of Bharata and wrote an elaborate and stupendous commentary on this encyclopaedic text. From this interest in dramaturgy, we have seen, he came to be deeply interested in the various theories about the origin and function of Rasa, not only in the drama but also in poetry; and one of the latest and most important theory on Rasa is directly associated with his name by Mammata, Hemacandra and others. In expounding this theory, he tried to explain clearly how the vyakti or vyanjanā of the Dhvani-theorists could be applied to the case of the manifestation of Rasa, thus correlating the Rasa-

¹ See ch. iv, p. 128.

doctrine with the Dhvani-theory. He defined the concept of Rasa and its place in poetic theory, and furnished a brilliant aesthetic explanation of a phenomenon which had already taxed the ingenuity of many a previous thinker on the subject.

Having realised the importance of Rasa in poetry, Abhinava, however, went a step further than the Dhvanikāra and Anandavardhana in boldly setting it up as the only essence or aesthetic foundation of poetry, a view which has greatly influenced all later speculation on the subject. From the earlier drama and dramatic theory the authors of the Dhvanyāloka had admittedly worked up the idea of Rasa into poetry and poetic theory; but as the emotional mood in poetry, which the fact of Rasa emphasises, came to be more and more prominent, the Rasa stood out more and more in relief as its essential aesthetic basis. We have seen2 that Abhinava's predecessors in the Dhvani school consider Rasa only as one of the elements of the unexpressed, which may take other forms in the shape of an unexpressed matter (vastu) or an unexpressed imaginative mood (alamkāra). No doubt, their theory puts great emphasis on the rasa-dhvani or suggestion of Rasa in poetry; but both the Dhvanikara and Anandavardhana are yet careful in taking into account other kinds of suggestion and do not, as they could not, erect the Rasa into the very 'soul' of poetry. No doubt, it may be thought that they show a decided partiality to rasa, which would practically lead to a conclusion of its essentiality; but they could not, having regard to theoretical consistency give exclusive preference to it; for in their complete scheme of Poetics the rasa-dhvani, which is only one of the three forms of the unexpressed, plays as much part as the vastu- and alamkāra-dhvani. They had to recognise that the centre of gravity in a poem may lie in its material and its imagination. as much as in its emotional element. Abhinavagupta appears to have attached little weight to these theoretical considera-

² See ch. v, p. 166.

tions, which had restrained his predecessors from explicitly stating what they practically implied; and brushing them aside, he carries their theory to its utmost logical consequence by declaring the essentiality of Rasa (rasenaiva sarvam jivati kāvyam), without which, in his opinion, there could be no poetry (na hi tac chūnyam, i. e. rasa-śūnyam, kāvyam kimcid asti, p. 65). He attempts, however, to explain the theoretical discrepancy by saying that the two other aspects of suggestion, concerned respectively with vastu and alamkara, resolve themselves ultimately into the suggestion of rasa, which is in fact the essence of poetry (rasa eva vastuta ātmā, vastvalamkāra-dhvanī tu sarvathā rasam prati paryavasyete, p. 27). This opinion, no doubt, influenced the view of later thinkers to a great extent; for, although Mammata carefully follows the cautious attitude of the Dhvanikara and Anandavardhana. Viśvanātha, developing their theory (after Abhinavagupta) further out of itself, pushes it to its extreme limit and builds up his own scheme of Poetics on the basis of the theory that poetry consists of a sentence of which the 'soul' is Rasa (vākyam rasātmakam kāvyam). But we shall see that 'the considerations which led the Dhvanikāra and his commentator to leave their view on this point wisely unstated could not be easily put out of the way, and they are repeated substantially by Jagannātha in his criticism of Viśvanātha's view. All later writers, however, agree in thinking that the rasa-dhvani is certainly the most important point for consideration in poetry; and even if they do not explicitly state with Abhinava that the vastu- and alamkāra-dhvani resolve ultimately into rasa-dhvani, they yet show a decided partiality to the latter element.

This, in brief, is the general position of Abhinavagupta as a champion of the new system established by Anandavardhana. The final dominance of this system in later speculation is due not only to the intrinsic worth of the theory itself and its masterly formulation by Anandavardhana, but also probably to the authority which Abhinava's exposition as well as his

reputation lent to it. We find in the immediate followers of the system, however, not the extreme position of Abhinavagupta, but the theory and the scheme as finally outlined by Anandavardhana. With Anandavardhana, the Dhvani-theory. which was itself ancient, came to prevail; but with him also was evolved a more or less complete scheme of Poetics in which the divergent gleams of earlier thought and the accumulated stock of recognised ideas meet and are rationally adjusted. This scheme, with the concept of dhvani (especially rasa-dhvani) at its centre, was summed up and uttered in the concise form of a systematic text-book by Mammata, another Kashmirian, whose influence perhaps was not less potent than that of Abhinavagupta in raising it to almost exclusive authority in later times. This system, which for convenience we have called the Dhvani-system, absorbed and overshadowed all previous schools and systems, and came to reign supreme, only to be improved in detail by the large crowd of its followers who form the bulk of post-dhvani writers on Poetics. Jagannatha, one of the latest writers of this group. very aptly remarks, therefore, that the authors of Dhvanyāloka settled the path to be followed by later writers on Poetics (dhvanikṛtām ālaṃkārika-saraṇi-vyavasthāpakatvāt, p. 425).

But it must not be supposed that the theory or system of Dhvani could obtain universal acceptance without some vigorous opposition. Before we take up the post-dhvani followers of Anandavardhana, it will be necessary to consider here some of the reactionary writers who either follow and develop other traditions of thought, or who refuse to acknowledge the new theory. Adherents of other schools, such as Pratihärendurāja (pp. 79f) who commented on Udbhata, or Gopendra Tippa Bhūpāla (p. 72) who commented on Vāmana, carry on the older tradition and do not fail to criticise the new theory. Says Mukula, Pratihārendurāja's Guru: lakṣaṇā-mārgāvagāhitvaṃ tu dhvaneḥ sahqdayair nūtanatayopavar-ṇitasya vidyata iti...etac ca vidvadbhiḥ kuśāgrīyayā buddhyā nirūpaṇīyam, na tu jhagity evāsūyitavyam ity alam ati-

prasangena (p. 21). But more hostile opposition or attack came from some really thoughtful writers who urged new systems, or new explanations of the Dhvani-theory in terms of old ideas. Most of these theorists lived near enough in time to Abhinavagupta; and coming later than the authors of the Dhvanyāloka, they accept or show themselves cognisant of the general concept of dhvani, but attempt to formulate other explanations of it. All of them, however, agree that the vyañjanā vrtti need not be postulated or proved for explaining the suggested sense of poetry, and conservatively maintain that the suggested sense can be reached from the expressed sense by some of the recognised means or processes of knowledge (e. g. anumāna). None of these writers, therefore, is what the Dhvanikāra would call an abhāva-vādin, i.e., none of them would deny the existence of Dhvani, but they would try to explain it in terms of already recognised concepts or processes. These theorists are: Bhatta Nāyaka probably preceded Abhinavagupta, Kuntaka was probably the latter's contemporary, and Mahimabhatta who was either a younger contemporary or lived immediately after Abhinavagupta. It will also be convenient to take up in this connexion the school of opinion represented by the writer on Poetics in the Agni-purāna and by Bhoja, which stands in many respects apart from the Kashmirian school of Anandavardhana and which appears to have been entirely untouched by the implications of the Dhvani-theory.

(2)

Bhatta Nāyaka

It is unfortunate that Bhatta Nāyaka's *Hṛdaya-darpaṇa* is now lost. From the citations of Abhinavagupta and others, the conjecture is likely that it was not a commentary on Bharata's *Nāṭya-śāstra*³ but an independent work written in prose and verse (i.e., with verse-kārikā and prose-vṛtti) and

³ Sec. vol. i, pp. 40f.

resembling Mahimabhatta's later Vyakti-viyeka written in the same style and with the same object. Like the latter work, it was composed, if not for establishing a new theory of Poetics, at least for controverting the position of the Dhvanyāloka and formulating a different explanation of Dhvani, especially of rasa-dhvani. When Mahimabhatta later on took upon himself the task of "demolishing" the Dhyani-theory, he boasted at the outset of his elaborate attack that he had composed his Vyakti-viveka without looking into the Darpana (presumably Hrdaya-darpana, as explained by his commentator), which was therefore obviously written with the same object of dhvani-dhvamsa. No doubt, Bhatta Nāyaka was one of the four writers (mentioned by Abhinava, Mammata and others) who formulated explanations of Bharata's original sūtra on Rasa; but this in itself is no reason to take him as a commentator on Bharata's text⁵.

- 4 It is curious that Mahimabhatta says that in composing his own work he has not also looked into the Candrikā, which was apparently an adverse commentary on the Dhvanyāloka. It is probably the same work as is referred to and criticised frequently by Abhinavagupta in his "Locana and as, he says, was composed by one of his ancestors. Abhinava's references and criticism also confirm the idea that it criticised the text of the Dhvanyāloka adversely on many points. This Candrikā is also apparently cited by Māṇikyacandra and Someśvara in their commentaries on Mammata. See vol i, p. 101.
- There is a passage, already referred to by us, in the Abhinava-bhāratī ch. i, which appears (see Sovani's article on the Pre-dhvani Schools in Bhandarkar Commemoration Volume, p. 390; contra in JRAS, 1909, pp. 450-52) to indicate that the Hṛdaya-darpuṇa was a commentary on the Nāṭya-śāstra. The passage runs thus (commenting on brahmaṇā yad udāhṛtam in Bharata i. 1): bhaṭṭa-nāyakas tu brahmaṇā paramātmanā yad udāhṛtam kṛṭa-nidarśanam......tud anena pāramārthikaṃ prayo-janam ukṭam iti vyākhyānaṃ hṛdaya-darpaṇe paryagrahīt. This passage is indeed important, for the relevancy of any comment on Bharata i, 1. is difficult to explain in a work which ex hypothesi is not a commentary on the text. But it appears to militate against those references to and passages from Bhaṭṭa Nāyaka's work (prose as well as verse) which Abhinava cites and criticises in his "Locana (pp. 11, 12, 15, 19, 21, 27,

On the other hand, Abbinava's references in "Locana make it reasonably clear that the Hṛdaya-darpaṇa, like the Vyakti-viveka, had the special object of criticising in detail the text of the Dhvanyāloka as well as its theory; and its discussion of Rasa might have come in topically in connexion with Bhatta Nāyaka's general views regarding poetry and poetic expression.

The question, however, cannot be definitely settled so long as we get only glimpses of Bhatta Nāyaka's views set forth in the brief exposition and adverse criticism of Abhinava and others. We have already considered at some length Bhatta Nāyaka's views regarding the origin and function of Rasa in poetry. We have seen that Bhatta Nāyaka regards rasa-carvaṇā as the essence of poetry, but he is apparently not prepared to accept the function of vyañjanā as its means of 'manifestation'. It is possible that he admits a suggested sense, as he accepts

28, 29, 33, 63, 67-68) and which consist mostly of direct criticism of the text of the Dhvanyāloka. Either of two explanations is possible: (1) that the Hṛdaya-darpaṇa was in fact a commentary on Bharata's Nāṭya-šāstra, and Bhaṭṭa Nāyaka's criticism of the Dhvanyāloka might have constituted incidental discussions in it. But this does not explain the presence of verses in it, which later writers, including Abhinavagupta, quote from Bhaṭṭa Nāyaka in their exposition of his views; or (2) that it was an independent work in prose and verse, consisting of Bhaṭṭa Nāyaka's propounding of his own views in opposition to those of the Dhvanyāloka; and the discussions of Rasa-theory and of Bharata's text are not altogether inexplicable, as they might have been topical in connexion with his general theory. This latter explanation, which we have already discussed vol. i, seems to be more likely.

- 6 See ch. iv, pp. 123f.
- 7 Bhatta Nāyaka's objection to the abhivyakti-theory is thus summarised by Abhinavagupta ("Locana p. 68): "If the potentially existing syngāra is supposed to be manifested by abhivyakti, then it would occupy its field of action in diverse degrees (viṣayārjana-tāratamya-pravṛttiḥ), i.e., thus contradicting the nature of Rasa as one. There would also be the difficulty mentioned before, namely, whether the Rasa is manifested as existing in oneself or in another person."

the suggestion of Rasa as the essence of poetry (rasa-dhvanis tu tenaivātmatayāngīkrtah, "Locana p.15); but from Abhinava's twitting him on this score it is probable that he denied vastu-dhvani (kim tu vastu-dhvanim dūşayatā rasa-dhvanis tad anugrāhakah samarthyata iti susthutarām dhyani-dhyamso'yam, p. 20). Bhatta Nāyaka maintains in a verse attributed to him by Abhinava (p. 27), Hemacandra (p. 4) Māṇikyacandra (p. 4) and Jayaratha (p. 9) that the distinction between various kinds of literary composition lies in the fact that in the Sastra sabda predominates, artha in the Ākhyāna (=probably itihāsa), while in the Kāvya, both śabda and artha are subordinated (gunībhūta or nyagbhāvita). Elsewhere he is represented by Abhinava (p. 68) as saying that the verbal composition (sabda) which makes up poetry is different from other species of verbal composition by the fact that it possesses three elements. Of these elements, abhidhā or Denotation belongs to the province of expressed meaning, bhāvakatva or power of generalisation to that of Rasa, and the bhojakatva or the power of enjoyment to the appreciating audience: thus we have three functions attributed to the three elements of poetry. If Denotation, among these, is taken by itself (i.e. without the other two), then what is the essential difference, he asks, between the poetic figures and the dogmas which form the method of Sastras? Or, if this manifold distinction of functions is without importance (metaphorically as well as intrinsically), then why avoid faults like unmelodiousness (śruti-dusta)? These considerations. Bhatta Nāyaka thinks, would give us the second function, viz. bhāvakatva, by which generalisation is accomplished of poetry as well as of its factors (vibhāvas). It is on account of this function that abhidha or Denotation is also Indication (lakşaṇā), i.e., the Denotation can give to the expressed sense a secondary or metaphorical significance as the basis of Rasa. After the Rasa is thus generalised (bhāvita), comes its enjoyment or bhoga which, we have seen, Bhatta Nāyaka represents, after the Samkhya philosophers, as a process of distinterested contemplation akin to the philosophic contemplation of Brahma.

Bhatta Nāyaka thus postulates a function of bhoga, beyond those of abhidhā and bhāvakatva, inherent in poetry. in order to explain the working of Rasa. He seems to imply that the Rasa, which the Dhyani-theorists would take as the suggested emotional sense of poetry, is, in his opinion, purely sva-samvedya and therefore transcending definition, In other words, he belongs to that class of objectors to the Dhvani-theory regarding whom the Dhvanikara says that they do not deny dhvani but think that its essence lies beyond the province of words (i. 1c). In a verse attributed Bhatta Nāyaka by Abhinava (pp. 15, 11) and Jayaratha (p. 9), he speaks of kāvyāngatva and not kāvya-rūpatā* of what is known as dhvani; a statement which would indicate that having assumed the concept, Bhatta Nāyaka's object was to establish an explanation different from that of the Dhvani-theorists. Ruyyaka thinks that Bhatta Nāyaka would regard what is called vyangya-vyāpāra to be an element (kāvyāmsatva) and not an essence of poetry, being reached by the bold utterance of the poet (praudhokti). In this sense. the kavi-karman or act of imagination on the part of the poet (indicated by Bhatta Nayaka, as Jayaratha points out, by the word vyāpāra), which makes śabda and artha subservient to itself, is the most important thing in poetry; a view which approximates Bhatta Nāyaka's theory to that of Kuntaka, who makes kavi-karman the source of what he calls vakrokti in poetry.

(3)

Kuntaka

Kuntaka, author of the Vakrokti-jivita, on the other hand, had no direct intention of attacking or disproving the Dhvani-

8 Read in the verse kāvyāngatvam na rūpatā, as given by the reading of MS ga indicated in *Locana p. 15.

theory. He appears to have accepted the fact of a suggested sense in poetry but, following the tradition of Bhāmaha's vakrokti, he develops a system of vakrokti of his own, in some aspects of which he includes all ideas of dhvani and rasa. Nearly the whole of his long lost work has been recently recovered, and a part of it (chs. i, ii and a part of iii) has been published by the present writer; it is now possible, therefore, to depend no longer on the references to Kuntaka in later literature for an account of his views, but gather it independently from his own statements.

The central idea in Kuntaka is that the vakrokti is the essence (jīvita) of poetry; and by Vakrokti he understands a certain striking or charming (vicitra) mode of expression (vinyāsa-krama), which is different from or excels the common or matter-of-fact expression of words and ideas in the Sastras and the like (sastradi-prasiddha-sabdarthopanibandhavyatireki). It is, therefore, a deviation from the established mode of speech for the purpose of attaining a certain strikingness (vaicitrya or vicchitti), or an imaginative turn of words and ideas (bhangi-bhaniti or bhaniti-prakāra) peculiar to poetry, and abhorrent of common speech in which facts are more or less simply stated. This is the vakratva or vakrabhāva underlying all poetic speech. A distinction, therefore, is implied not only between the method of the sciences and the scriptures (sastrādi), on the one hand, and that of poetry, on the other, but also between what may be called the "naturalistic" and the "artistic" mode of expression11.

Kuntaka, therefore, holds that sālamkṛta śabda and artha or embellished word and sense alone constitute poetry, and this embellishment consists of Vakrokti. The so-called embellishments, which go by the name of poetic figures

⁹ In the Calcutta Oriental Series, 2nd revised and enlarged ed. 1928. The work consisted probably of four chapters. See vol. i. p. 128 above.

¹⁰ An account of Kuntaka's theory of poetry is given in the introduction to the above edition, which see for detailed references.

¹¹ See above ch. ii, pp. 48-49.

(alamkāras) in orthodox Poetics, are merely aspects of this Vakrokti, and can be properly included in its comprehensive scope. So can also the ideas of *dhvani* and *rasa*. This Vakrokti being the only possible alamkāra and being essential as such, Kuntaka finds fault with the common statement that the alamkāra belongs to poetry; for such a statement would imply that poetry may exist without it (i. 7, 11).

Kuntaka then explains that the Vakrokti charms us by the skill of the poet, and is therefore called vaidagdhya-bhangi-bhaniti¹². It rests ultimately on the conception (pratibha) of the poet, or on his skill (kauśala), or on an act of imagination on his part, which is termed kavi-vyāpāra or kavi-karman. Kuntaka does not exactly define this kavi-vyāpāra, which is the ultimate source of poetry, perhaps because he is conscious of the fact that it is in its nature undefinable; but he analyses it elaborately, and distinguishes and classifies its function in six different spheres, namely, in the arrangements of letters (varna), of the substantive and terminal parts of a word (pada-pūrvārdha and pada-parārdha), of a sentence (vākya), of a particular topic (prakaraṇa), and of the composition as a whole (prabandha). He devotes

12 The word vidagdha is used in opposition to the word vidyat to signify a man versed in belles-lettres as distinguished from a scholar; and the Dhvanyāloka often speaks of an appeal to vidagdha-vidvatparişad (pp. 201, 239). Avantisundarī is cited in Kāvya mīmāmsā p. 46 as saying vidagdha-bhaniti-bhangi-nivedyam vastuno rūpam na niyatasvabhāvam. The vaicitrya is discussed by Anandavardhana at p. 243, in which connexion he uses the term bhaniti-krtam vaicitrya-matram. Abhinava speaks of infinite variety of upamā-vicchitti (upamā-vicchittiprakārāņām asamkhyatvāt, "Locana p.5), and uses it also synonymously with carutva (p. 8). It would appear from the verse quoted by Anandavardhana at p. 130, the word vicchitti, used in this sense in poetic theories, is applied analogically from the same word used to signify a certain feminine charm or elegance derived from carelessness in dress and decoration (Bharata xxii. 16). See on this point Haricand Sastri, L'art poétique de l'Inde pp. 64-65. The word bhangi in the sense of a turn of expression is used in Dhva° pp. 139, 241, Etymologically it appears to have the same meaning as vicchitti.

nearly the whole of his work, with the exception of the introductory portion of the first chapter, to the definition. classification and illustration of these varieties of kavivyāpāravakratā, which thus form the different categories into which poetic speech may be analysed.

It is clear from this brief exposition that Kuntaka cannot admit as poetry a composition involving mere svabhāvokti. which he takes to be plain description without the requisite strikingness; and he consequently develops Bhamaha's indication that a kind of atisaya is involved in vakroktivaicitrya. This atisaya, if it is taken in the sense of the lokātikrānta-gocaratā of Bhāmaha's atišavokti, would imply a kind of heightened charm of expression which is lokottara or dissociated from personal interests and relations. The dissociation, therefore, which is supposed in the artistic attitude involved in the relish of Rasa13, is also implied in Vakrokti; and on this point Kuntaka appears to agree with the main position of the Rasa-theorists. Kuntaka also thinks that the ultimate test of this lokottara vaicitrya is tadvidāhlāda or pleasure of the appreciating sahrdaya, who plays here apparently the same part as he does in the Rasa-theory or in poetic theories generally. It seems, therefore, that the exponents of the different theories approach ultimately the same standard, albeit through different avenues of thought. and agree in holding that vaicitrya or camatkāra (in Alamkāra or Rasa) must be finally subjected to the taste of the sahrdaya.

Thus a new turn was given to the Alamkāra-system of Bhāmaha; or rather, what was implicit or naïvely expressed in it was developed to its logical consequence by Kuntaka's systematic analysis of its implications. In spite of the obviously extreme nature of his central theory and his some-

¹³ See above ch. iv.

¹⁴ The Vakrokti-system of Kuntaka may properly be regarded as an off-shoot of the older Alamkara-system (ch. ii).

what quaint nomenclature, his work is of great value as presenting a unique system, or rather as systematising the Alamkāra-theory of earlier writers in a refreshingly original way. The Dhvani-theorists had either dismissed the poetic figures (alamkāras) as mere vāg-vikalpas, or considered them only as heightening the charm of the unexpressed element in poetry. They speak of the relation of the Alamkara to the principal suggested element of poetry (e.g. in the shape of Rasa); but there might arise cases where the poet's obvious intention is not to awaken Rasa or anything else unexpressed. but simply to produce a strikingness in the form of an expressed poetic figure. In these cases, the authors of the Dhvanyāloka think that all such figures which, in connexion with an involved unexpressed element, possess a peculiar charm, belong to the class of poetry called by the gunibhūtavyangya; if there is no such unexpressed element involved. the figures have a pictorial effect merely, and may be included in the lowest class of poetry, called by them citra and described by them as no poetry but an imitation thereof. In other words, they take into consideration such poetic figures as being connected with the unexpressed possess a peculiar charm. and thus justify their position in poetry: the figures unaccompanied by the unexpressed or in no way connected with it are condemned to the level of no-poetry, as phases of speech which is of infinite variety. As Anandavardhana says: anantā hi vāgvikalpās tat-prakārā eva cālamkārāh. Kuntaka, on the other hand, justifies the significance of such figures in poetry as figures, and shows that this significance is independent of all considerations of their connexion with the unexpressed; for it consists in the very vaicitrya or strikingness involved in them, which is sufficient in itself, and does not borrow its power of appeal from eisewhere.

But he justifies the alamkāra as such only when it involves the vaicitrya, vicchitti or vakratva and becomes a phase of Vakrokti. He admits that the poetic figures are particular forms of speech, aspects of the expressed denotation

(abhidhā-prakāra-višeṣāḥ), in which there need not be any connexion with the unexpressed; but he supposes at the same time a specific differentia in them which consists in a peculiar turn of expression resulting in a characteristic strikingness (vaicitrya or vicchitti) and depending upon an act of imagination on the part of the poet (kavi-pratibhānirvartita). Thus, the so-called alamkāras of orthodox Poetics are admissible when they are found on analysis to possess these characteristics of peculiar charm imparted to them by the fertile imagination of the poet; and these, therefore, constitute the elements which go to make up the being of a poetic figure¹⁵. Kuntaka in this way not only supplies a remarkable deficiency in the teaching of the Dhvanikara and Anandavardhana, but also justifies the existence and fixes the conception of a poetic figure as distinguished from a mere speech-figure. It is no wonder, therefore, that later followers of the Dhvani school, who form the bulk of post-dhvani writers on Poetics, readily accept Kuntaka's analysis, and regard the two characteristics, viz. vicchitti and kavi-vyāpāra, as forming the ultimate test of a poetic figure. Mammata lays down that where there is no suggested Rasa, the poetic figures simply result in ukti-vaicitrya or charmingness of expression, and states generally that Alamkara is charmingness itself (vaicitryam alamkārah). We shall see that Ruyyaka was the first writer who accepts Kuntaka's test of a poetic figure and applies it systematically to a detailed examination and classification of individual poetic figures.

On Rīti Kuntaka puts greater stress than Bhāmaha, and gives a more elaborate classification of Guṇas. He is aware of the classification of Mārga or Rīti made by Daṇḍin and

¹⁵ Hence, the word "poetic figure" or kāvyālamkāra, instead of "figure of speech." See above ch. ii. pp. 74. In a formal scheme of Poetics they no doubt correspond, but this point of view of its involving poetic charm would be entirely omitted in a treatise of rhetoric. It is, therefore, misleading to translate Sanskrit Alamkāra as Sanskrit Rhetoric. See ZDMG, Ivi, 392 fn.

Vāmana, but he does not accept it. He does not also believe that a particular Rīti is determined by Desa-dharma (regional characteristics) or that it should be named after a particular locality; for in that case one has to admit infinite varieties of Rīti, as there is infinite number of countries. The classification of Rītis into good (Uttama), bad (Adhama and indifferent (Madhyama) is also futile, for the best kind of mode alone is acceptable, and there is no point in admitting or framing rules for the so-called Adhama or Madhyama mode. In Kuntaka's opinion, it is Kavi-svabhāva alone which furnishes the criterion, and Rītis (Kuntaka employs the term Mārga) should be classified according to the essential difference in the power (Sakti), culture (Vyutpatti) and practice (Abhyāsa) of particular types of poets. One class of poets has special fitness for composition characterised by what he calls Saukumārya, while others prefer Vaicitrya, these being the two extreme modes of composition admitted by him. But there may still be other poets who would prefer to steer a middle course, thus favouring a mixed mode. In the Sukumāra Mārga the natural powers of the poet find an unfettered scope in describing the Svabhava of things, and consequently whatever ornamentation is required is effected with the least effort; while in the Vicitra Marga, favoured by all good poets, the art is chiefly decorative, and the Kavi-Kausala is Ahārya, being characterised by more deliberate and greater skill. Each of these Margas, according to Kuntaka, should contain four sets of excellences or Gunas, which are designated by the same name but defined differently. In the Vicitra-marga, we have Madhurya=compactness of skilful structure avoiding laxity of form; Prasada=lucidity due to the use of expressive words and easy syntax; Lavanya=beauty due to the arrangement of short and long syllables; and Abhijatya=elevatedness which is neither too soft nor too hard. In the Sukumāra Mārga, there should be Madhurya = sweetness due to the fewness of compounds; Prasada=perspicuity; Lavanya=beauty arising out of proper

arrangement of letters and words; and Abhijātya=smoothness. The Madhyma Mārga, which stands midway, combines the excellences of both (ubhāyātmaka). To these characteristics Kuntaka adds Aucitya (i. 53-54) and Saubhāgya (i. 55-56) as excellences common to the three Mārgas. The Aucitya emphasises fitness of words and ideas, which Saubhāgya arises out of the realisation of all the resources of a composition¹⁶.

It follows from the prominence given by Kuntaka to Vakrokti in poetry that all ideas of Dhvani and Rasa stilluld be comprehended in certain aspects of vakratā, just as the Vrttis of Udbhata, connected with anuprāsa, as well as anuprāsa itself and yamaka of orthodox writers, are taken as kinds of varna-vinyāsa-varkratā or vakratā depending upon the peculiar arrangement of letters. The idea of Dhyani is included partly in rūdhi-vaicitrya-vakratā, where Ānandavardhana's own verse tāla jaamti guņa, as well as the verse snigdha-śyāmala-kānti° cited by Ananda as an example of arthāntara-samkramita-vācya dhvani (i. e. suggestion where the expressed sense passes into another sense), is given as instances. Other aspects of Dhvani are ackowledged in upacāra-vakratā, where the verse gaaņam ca mattameham, cited by Ananda as an instance of atyanta-tiraskrta-vācya dhyani (i. e. suggestion where the expressed sense disappears entirely), is given as an example. From Kuntaka's treatment it appears that he takes upacāra in the sense of a supposed or fancied identification of two objects, however distinct, on the basis even of the slightest resemblance. As such, therefore, it is admittedly involved in figures like metaphor (rūpaka) and forms the basis of metaphorical expression generally. This would come under the comprehensive domain of transferred expression known as laksanā, and would be included by Dhvani-theorists under laksanā-mūla-dhvani, i. c. suggestion

¹⁶ See Har Dutt Sharma, Kuntaka's Conception of Gunas in Proc. A.I.O.C, Patna 1933, pp. 581-91.

based on transference or Indication¹⁷. Kuntaka would thus belong to that group of writers regarding whom the Dhvanikāra says that they do not deny the existence of dhvani but regard it as bhākta (bhāktam āhus tam anye), i. c. depending on a transference of sense or Indication.

Regarding rasa-dhvani which comes under asamlaksyakrama-vyangya (i. e. suggestion of an imperceptible process). it is clear that Kuntaka, who admits not the essentiality of Rasa but that of Vakrokti, can comprehend Rasa only as an element in some aspects of Vakrokti. In the third chapter of his work, dealing with vākya-vakratā, he discusses how poetry may be made charming by delineating appropriate Rasas. In this connexion he examines in some detail such figures as rasavat, prevas etc., in which Rasa was admitted as an element by early theorists, whose system, maintaining the importance of Alamkara in poetry, could not otherwise recognise Rasa independently. The special poetic figures like rasavat etc., constituted the back-gate, as it were, for the admission of the idea of Rass in the Alamkara-systems. When. however, the theory of Rasa assumed its proper importance in the schools, the necessity naturally arose of explaining how Rasa, which is essential and therefore fit to be embellished (alamkārya or upakārya) can itself be regarded as a means of embellishment (alamkāra or upakāraka) in figures like rasayat. We find accordingly in the Dhvanikāra and Ānandavardhana an attempt to comprehend the rasavat etc. under the class of poetry called by them gunībhūta-vyangya, in which the suggested sense (in this case the suggested Rasa) is subordinated to the expressed sense. The theory was put into shape by distinguishing the sphere of asamlaksya-krama dhyani from that of figures like rasavat on the ground that when the Rasa is predominant and forms the essence of the poem in question, it constitutes the principal suggested

17 It is for this reason that Ruyyaka thinks that the Vakroktijīvita-kāra comprehended all ideas of dhvani in upacāra-vakratā and the like (p. 8 with Jayaratha thereon). element, and as such it is alamkārya; but when it is subordinate to the expressed sense, it constitutes mere alamkāra or embellishment (Dhva° ii. 4 f). The Pradīpa puts this concisely by saying: yatra pradhānam rasādis tatra dhvanih, yatra tvapradhānam tatrālamkāra iti bhāvah. Logically following this view, Mammata does not regard the cases of rasavat etc. as poetic figures at all, but only as a variety of gunībhūta-vyangya poetry¹8.

18 Later writers and commentators, however, unwilling to depart from the authority of the "ancients," attempt to explain the problem of rasavat in various ways by a method of ingenious interpretation. which keeps to the letter but changes the spirit of the old dictum. Most of these views are discussed by Visvanatha. One school holds that the designation alamkara, given to figures like rasavat merely because they help the development of Rasa, is a purely secondary application of the term (bhākta); for they are not really alamkāras but should be accepted as such in deference to the practice of ancient writers (rasādyupakāra-mā!reņehālamkṛti-vyapadeso bhāktas cirantana-prasiddhyanglkārya eva). These theorists admit a difference between rasavat, on the one hand, and alamkāras properly so called (such as upamā), on the other; for in the one case the Rasa directly embellishes another Rasa, while in the other case, the Rasa is indirectly embellished through the form of word and sense. But they maintain at the same time that there is one thing in common between the two kinds, viz. that both of them embellish the Rasa, either directly or indirectly, by being subservient to On account of this similarity of function, the designation alamkara, which is properly applicable to such figures as upamā, is applied to the rasquat by an extension of the sense (bhakti); and this usage has the sanction of ancient and respectable authority to which we must bow. But this explanation is rejected by others as being too fine. The difference between alamkāras like upamā, on the one hand, and the rasavat, on the other, which is supposed to be due to the fact of direct and indirect embellishment, is admitted to be true, but is explained away as purely accidental and immaterial; and, strictly speaking, we should designate both as alamkāras instead of indulging in fine distinctions. A third view, which altogether rejects this distinction between direct and indirect embellishment, maintains that the general definition of alamkāra as that which embellishes the Rasa through word and sense is applicable as much to resevet as to regular figures like upama.

Kuntaka takes up the rasavat topically under vastuvakratā, which may relate to both sahaja and āhārya vastu. the delineation of Rasa coming apparently under the latter head, which is described as kavi-śakti-vyutpatti-paripākapraudha. He criticises the definitions of rasavat given by Bhāmaha, Dandin and others, and holds that it is neither darsita-spasta-śrngārādi-rasam, not rasa-samsrayam, again rasa-peśalam, but rasena tulyam vartamānam; and consequently it is not an alamkāra but an alamkārya. other words, the Rasa is awakened in these cases for its own sake, and not for the purpose of embelishing the expressed word and sense. If not theoretically invulnerable, this view is interesting as indicating that the importance of Rasa, first advocated in poetic theories by the Dhvanikāra, appears to have influenced thinkers belonging to other traditions of thought. The Dhvanikara attempts to reconcile the older idea of rasavat as involving the idea of Rasa secondarily, by admitting it in his second division of poetry; but Kuntaka brushes aside even the view of his predecessor Bhāmaha in this respect, and thinks that this case should be regarded as one in which the poet has an opportunity of creating a kind of vakrokti in which the Rasa supplies the principal charm. But he allows Rasa to play the greatest part in what he calls prabandha-vakratā, i.e. in vakratā occurring in the composition as a whole which, he thinks, must be accomplished chiefly by the aid of pleasing Rasas (rasantarena ramyena yatra nirvahanam bhavet). It is not the mere matter or plot, but the beauty imparted to it by the continuous sense of Rasa in it which can make the words of a poet live (nirantara-rasoddhāra-garbha-saundarya-nirvarāh / girah kavīnām jīvanti na kathāmātram aśritāh). Kuntaka even accepts the Dhvanyāloka's judgment that in the Mahabharata, the santa-rasa is the angin or predominant Rasa and constitutes its principal charm, although he thinks that it is ultimately the kavi-pratibhā which is the allimportant thing in poetry.

(4)

Mahimabhatta

Mahimabhatta begins his Vyakti-viveka, whose very name implies that it is a consideration of the theory of vyakti or vyañjanā established by the authors of the Dhyanyāloka. with the proposition that his object is to comprehend all ideas of dhvani in the process of anumana or syllogistic reasoning (anumāne'ntarbhāvam sarvasyaiva dhyaneh prakāśayitum). He proceeds, therefore, to consider in detail the text as well as the theory of the Dhyanikara and Anandayardhana. He criticises minutely the definition of dhvani given in Dhva° i. 13 which, if properly considered, applies, he thinks, to anumana. He considers (especially in the third chapter) most of the examples given in the Dhvanyāloka and tries to demonstrate that they are really cases of anumana. Indeed, throughout his work he proceeds by an elaborate process of destructive criticism and makes the definition of dhyani. propounded by its advocates, conform to his definition of what he calls kāvyānumiti as the process through which another sense is revealed by the expressed sense, or by a sense inferred from it connectedly (vācyas tad-anumito vā yatrārtho'rthāntaram prakāsayati/ sambandhatah kutascit sā kāvyānumitir ity uktā, p. 22).

This being his main position, he accepts only two senses of sabda, namely, the actually expressed (vācya) and the inferable (anumeya), including under the latter both laksya and vyangya senses, whose independent existence he does not admit. He says (p. 7); "Meanings are of two kinds, the expressed and the inferable. Of these, the expressed belongs to the function of a word, and is alone called the primary sense of a word.... From it, or being inferred from it, as from a logical hetu or middle term in a syllogism, another sense which is inferred, is called the inferable sense. This again is threefold, consisting of mere matter (vassu), the poetic figures (alamkāra) or the mood and sentiments (rasa). The first

two of these varieties can also become the expressed, the last is always inferable". It is clear enough from this that Mahimabhatta apparently accepts the recognised concept of a suggested sense in the shape of a vastu, alamkāra and rasa, but maintains that these are not revealed by vyakti or suggestion but by anumāna¹⁰; for the expressed sense and the so-called suggested sense stand in the relation of linga and lingin, the middle and the major terms of a syllogism (p. 12).

Mahimabhatta maintains, by analysing many examples taken from the Dhvanyāloka, that the expressed sense does not really suggest the unexpressed sense, but that between the two, inferences are possible and do occur. The vyakti, as Anandavardhana himself admits (p. 192), is the manifestation of that which is desired to be manifested, and which becomes manifest along with that which manifests it, just as a jar in a dark room becomes visible along with the light which makes it visible. The vastu, alamkāra and rasa, which are the three suggested elements in the opinion of the Dhvani-theorists, are not manifested in this way; for they are not comprehended along with the expressed which suggests them, but only afterwards. The interval between the perception of the expressed vibhavas and the suggested rasa, for instance, is indeed very short, and is therefore called by the Dhvanitheorists themselves a process of imperceptible sequence (asamlaksya-krama); but this very nomenclature shows that the existence of a krama or sequence cannot be denied, and that the expressed and the unexpressed, therefore, are sequential. Being such, they must bear the relationship of a logical premise and its conclusion (pp. 11 f). Even in the case of the indicated sense, as in the phrase gaur bāhīkah, what one first understands is that the two (go and bāhīka) are not identical, and from this the conclusion arises that

¹⁹ This is the only important point of his disagreement with the Dhvanyāloka; in other respects, he says, there is hardly any disagreement (prāṇabhūtā dhvaner yyaktir iti saiva vivecitā/yat tvanyat tatra vimatih prāyo nāstīty upekṣitum//).

sense here is ultimately reached by anumāna (p. 24). Thus, artha is merely a ground of inference and not a vyoñjaka. The process of Anumāna or inference is very wide in its scope, much wider than that of Dhvani which is naturally included in it (tasya, i.e. anumānasya, ca tad-apekṣayā mahāviṣayatvāt p. 12). With regard to śabda, it cannot be taken as the vyañjaka or suggestor of anything else but its literal meaning. As it exhausts itself after expressing its literal or primary sense, even the secondary indicated meaning (lakṣya artha) has admittedly to be inferred, not from itself but from the latter; how can it be supposed to suggest any deeper sense? But such words, through their expressed sense, can well become the ground or source of inference (anumāpaka), pp. 27 f.

The process of inference in poetry by which the unexpressed may be thus reached is presumably the ordinary process of syllogistic reasoning, which consists in the invariable concomitance (vyāpti) of the middle (linga) and the major (lingin) terms. The Dhvani or suggested sense is the lingin, and its suggestors (viz. word and sense) are apparently its linga. The invariable concomitance is ascertained in three ways, viz. by anupalabdhi (non-cognition). tādātmya (identity) and tad-utpatti (causation). In reply to Mahimabhatta's position, it has been shewn that none of these means of proving a syllogism is applicable to establishing the invariable concomitance between the linga sabdarthau and the lingin dhvani. The non-cognition of word and sense does not prove the existence of dhyani; for non-cognition only proves that lingin which consists of the absence of something. That a jar is absent can be proved from its non-cognition. But here the lingin dhvani does not consist of the absence of anything. Therefore the hetu is vitiated, and the non-cognition of word and sense can only prove their absence, but not that of Dhvani. There can be no identity (tādātmya), again, between the suggested sense (dhvani) and that which suggests it (sabda and artha); for the suggested meaning is essentially different from the expressed, and comes out prominently by keeping the latter in subordinate position. Similarly, the test of tad-utpatti or causation does not apply, for here the word and sense cannot be regarded as being caused by the suggested sense, in the same way as the smoke, which proves the existence of fire, can be taken as being produced from the fire itself.

Viśvanātha puts the objections in another way. Inference is the knowledge of the lingin by means of the linga, qualified by its existence in the subject (pakṣa-sattva), its existence in similar instances (sapakṣa-sattva) and its exclusion from opposite instances (vipakṣa-vyāvartatva). For example, we conclude in the subject, e. g. a smoky hill, the existence of the lingin fire by the linga smoke, which we see existing in it, as well as in similar instances (such as in the culinary hearth, where there is no doubt as to the existence of fire), and which we see absent from opposite instances (e. g. such places where the absence of fire is certain). But this syllogistic method is not strictly applicable to establishing the suggested sense from the expressed; for logical inference, Viśavnātha points out, has nothing to do with works of imagination. Take, for instance, the following verse:

dṛṣṭiṃ he prativeśini kṣaṇam ihāpy asmad-gṛhe dāsyasi prāyeṇāsya śiśoḥ pitā na virasāḥ kaupīr apaḥ pāsyati /, ekākiny api yāmi satvaram itaḥ srotas tamālākulaṃ nīrandhrās tanum ālikhantu jaraṭha-cchedā nala-granthayaḥ//

"O neighbour, will you cast your eyes for a moment here on our house? The father of this child will scarcely drink the tasteless water of a well. Though alone, I go quickly hence to the river whose banks are covered with tamāla-trees. Let the densely swarming knots of reeds with their hard projections scratch my body". Here the reed-knot's scratching the woman's body and her going alone to the quiet river-side may be taken as the linga of her enjoyment with a lover, which is the suggested sense (lingin) here. But these alleged reasons, though they help to reveal the unexpressed sense, are not

invariable; for dalliance with a gallant is not, from the logical point of view, universally predicable of a woman going alone to a river-side or from her being scratched by the reed-knots.

'It is noteworthy that Mahimabhatta relies (p. 26) also upon the arguments of those objectors of the Dhvani-theory who think that dhvani is identical with bhakti20; but he opposes alike the views of those Mīmāmsakas who believe in the single pervasive power of the expressed sense²¹, as well as the view of the Vakroktijīvita-kāra. His objection to the latter system is naturally based on his own idea of the importance of Rasa and unimportance of Dhvani. In his opinion, any deviation from common usage involving charmingness of expression, such as Kuntaka upholds, may take either of two forms, viz. (1) it may resolve itself more or less into a theory of propriety (aucitya)³², or (2) it may mean the manifestation of an implied sense other than the expressed sense. If the first alternative is meant, it is superfluous to one who admits Rasa in poetry, as no theory of Rasa can dispense with a theory of propriety or suitability with regard to the adjustment of its factors. To admit the other alternative is to bring in the idea of dhvani in a more or less disguised form.

Mahimabhatta's work is undoubtedly a masterpiece of

²⁰ See above ch. v. pp. 152f.

²¹ See above ch. v, 168 fn.

²² Mahimabhatta treats the question of aucitya (already dwelt upon in the Dhvanyāleka) in the second Vimarša of his work. He divides the subject of impropriety, which may be śabda-viṣaya and artha-viṣaya, into two heads according as it concerns the matter or form of poetry The former, called antaranga anaucitya, consists in improper employment of the vibhāvas etc. in the manifestation of Rasa. It has already been dealt with in the Dhvanyāloka. The formal impropriety, called bahiranga anaucitya, is chiefly concerned with the occurrence of five defects, viz. vidheyāvimarša (pp. 37-58), prakrama-bheda (pp. 58-66), krama-bheda (pp. 66-69), paunaruktya (pp. 69-84) and vācyāvacana (pp. 84-109). The question of aucitya will be dealt with in the next chapter.

scholastic argumentation, exhibiting much fastidious criticism and great learning of a miscellaneous kind; but its avowed object is polemical and it does not pretend to set up a new system. Mahimabhatta possesses all the qualifications of a subtle controversialist and enters into his task with a decided animus, which constitutes the source at once of his weakness. as well as of his strength. A fine product of a scholastic age, he cannot yet look beyond the pettiness of immediate issues; and whatever might be the value of his peculiar proposition, he hardly ever adds to its limited interest any independent treatment of the larger problems of Poetics. This is perhaps one of the reasons why even his logical acumen and his erudition failed to keep the interest of his work alive; but the chief reason why his book was forgotten in later times and was cited only to be condemned -a fate which it shared with the Vakrokti-jivita of Kuntaka—was that it pitted itself against the more formidable theory of the Dhvanikara and Anandavardhana which was destined to supersede it by attracting away the best thinkers of later times. The anumana-theory of Mahimabhatta, like the vakrokti-theory of Kuntaka, appears to have never received any liberal recognition in the hands of later theorists, nearly all of whom, since Mammata's time, accepted without question the system of the Dhvanyāloka. In attempting to explain away the new theory of Vyanjana in terms of the already recognised idea of Anumana, or reviving Bhamaha's old position in the face of the more widely received theory of the new aesthetic school. Mahimabhatta and Kuntaka were apparently fighting on behalf of a cause already doomed.

(4)

Bhoja and the Agni-purāņa

The school of opinion, represented in Poetics by the elamkāra-portion of the Agni-purāṇa apparently follows a tradition which departs in many respects from the orthodox

systems, and which we find developed by Bhoja in his own way in his Sarasvatī-kaṇṭhābharaṇa²³.

This apocryphal Purāṇa of uncertain date is ambitiously cyclopaedic. There is hardly any doubt, however, that the alaṃkāra-portion of this work, as we have already remarked, is chiefly a compilation, in a somewhat eclectic fashion, by a writer who was himself no theorist but who probably wanted to collect together and present a workable epitome, conforming in essentials to the teachings of no particular orthodox school, but gathering its material from all sources. This will be borne out not only by its independent, if somewhat loosely joined and uncritical treatment, but also from the presence of verses culled from various old writers.

Taking the Alamkara-section of the Agni-purana and the Sarasvatī-kanthābharana side by side, one is struck at once by some fundamental characteristics which are common to both. The most peculiar feature of the Agni-purana theory is the absence of the doctrine of Dhvani, although the concept of dhvani is included casually, after the manner of ancient authors, in the figure aksepa (sa aksepo dhyanih syāc ca dhvaninā vyajyate yatah, 344. 14). The word dhvani is also used in the opening verse (336. 1=Bhoja i. 1), which says generally that speech consists of dhvani, varna, pada and vākya (dhvanir varņāh padam vākyam ity etad vāhmayam matam); but apparently this alludes to the grammatical word which reveals the sphota, and which is indicated by the same term in the Vākyupadīya. The work, however, recognises abhidhā and laksanā, the ideas of which were already elaborated by philosophers and philosophical grammarians. At the same time, apart from obvious borrowings or copyings from Bharata, Bhāmaha and Dandin, this work cannot be taken as substantially following the views of any one of the schools represented by these names.

²³ Much of this section was printed originally as an article contributed to JRAS. 1923. pp. 537-49. On Vişņu-dharmottara Puraņa see vol. i, p. 95f and on Agni-purāņa i, p. 97f, where an account of their contents is given.

There is no doubt that in one verse, which is conveniently cited by Visyanātha in support of his own extreme view, the Agni-purāņa speaks of Rasa as the "soul" of poetry in contrast with mere verbal ingenuity (vāg-vaidagdhya-pradhane'pi rasa evātra iīvitam, 336. 33). It devotes a somewhat lengthy chapter to the description, after Bhazata, of rasa and bhava; yet there is nowhere any central theory of Rasa or any elaboration of a system of Poetics on its basis. As to the origin of Rasa. it propounds a peculiar view that from infinite bliss (ananda) proceeds self-consciousness (ahamkāra), from self-conciousness proceeds conceit (abhimāna), from conceit pleasure (rati), of which śringāra (love), hāsya (laughter) and other rasas are modifications (338, 2-4). It admits with Bharata four fundamental Rasas, from which are derived five others. Although partiality is thus shown to Rasa in poetry and drama, the Agni-purana cannot be affiliated to the Rasa school; for it does not make any attempt to correlate with this central priciple the other factors of poetry, viz. rīti, guņa and alamkāra, which are also recognised as of great, if not of equal, importance. One fact, however, worth noticing in this connexion is that although the Agni-purāna recognises nine Rasas, adding sānta to the orthodox eight, it extols and gives prominence to śrngāra: a trait which is unique and which is found fully developed in Bhoja who, as we shall see presently, accepts no other Rasa than śrngāra in his Śrngāra-prakāśa and gives almost exclusive attention to this important Rusa in his Sarasvatī-kanthābharana

On the other hand, although treatment is accorded to rīti (ch. 339) and guṇa (ch. 345), the Agni-purāṇa does not follow the tenets of the Rīti school, as represented by Daṇḍin and Vāmana. Daṇḍin classifies Rīti, which he calls Mārga, into two extreme types, vaidarbhī and gauḍī, to which Vāmana adds pāñcālī as an intermediate type; but the classification, according to both, depends upon the presence or absence of certain fixed excellences of diction, known as Guṇas. To

this enumeration Rudrața adds lafi, but by Rīti he means a definite arrangement of sentences with reference to the use of compound words of variable length. The Agni-purana accepts this four-fold classification, but the distinction is supposed to lie not only in the length or shortness of compound words, but also in the qualities of softness or smoothness, as well as in the prominence or otherwise of metaphorical expression (upacāra). The Gunas, again, are regarded as fundamental characteristics both by Dandin (i. 42) and Vāmana (i. 2. 6-8), who take them as forming the essence of Rīti, and distinguish them carefully from Alamkāras, which, in the opinion of Dandin, form the general characteristics of both the Margas, and, in the opinion of Vamana, are merely accidental characteristics enhancing the charm of poetry already brought out by the Gunas. The Agni-purāna. however, defines the Gunas, which are nowhere connected directly with Rīti, simply as those characteristics which reflect great beauty on poetry (yah kāvye mahatīm chāyām anugrhnāty asau gunah, 345. 3), a definition which hardly distinguishes them from Alamkaras, the definition of which is here almost the same: kāvya-śobhākarān dharmān alamkārān pracaksate (341. 17)24, and is merely copied uncritically from Dandin ii. 1. The classification of Gunas themselves, again, in this work is peculiar to itself. Ordinarily, the Gunas are classified as either sabaa-gunas or artha-gunas, and this procedure is sanctioned by Vamana. The Agnipurana brings in finer distinctions (345. 3 f.). The Gunas are here said to be of two kinds, specific (vaisesika) and general (sāmānya), the former apparently confining itself to any specific part or feature of a composition, the latter existing as common to its several component parts. The sāmānya guna, again, is in its turn classified into three subdivisions,

²⁴ This verse is also cited by Bhoja (ch. v, p. 355); but he remarks: satra kāvya-sobhākarān ity anena slesopamādivad guņa-rasa-bhāva-sadābhāsa-prasamanādīn apy upagrhņāti, apparently as a commentary on Dandin's view!

according as it appertains to sabda, artha, or both: the Agni-purăna (and Bhoja) admitting for the first time, so far as we know, this threefold classification. An altogether different scheme of enumeration of these Gunas then follows. Vāmana mentions in all ten Gunas, making each of these a śabda-guna as well as an artha-guna. The śabda-gunas. according to the Agni-purana, are seven in number, viz., ślesa, lālitya, gāmbhīrya, saukumārya, udāratā, satyā, and yaugikī; the artha-guņas are six, viz. mādhurya, samvidhāna, komalatva, udāratā, praudhī, and sāmayikatā; the šabdārtha-guņas are again six, viz. prasāda, saubhāgya, yathāsamkhya, praśastyatā, pāka, and rāga. The characteristics of some of these Gunas are not very clearly marked²⁵: and in Gunas like samvidhāna and yathāsamkhya are included ideas which are credited by other writers to Alamkaras. Although not enumerated as such, Dandin's ojas is reproduced (345. 10=Dandin i. 80) in the course of the treatment of individual sabda-gunas.

In the same way, it can be easily shown that the influence of the Alamkāra school, as represented by Bhāmaha and Udbhaṭa, is not very marked in this work. The śabdālaṃ-kāras are, with some modification, developed, no doubt, on the general lines of Daṇḍin's treatment²⁶, but the arthālaṃ-kāras do not strictly conform to the orthodox classification or definition. The Agni-purāṇa gives eight varieties of the latter, viz. svarūpa (or svabhāva), sādṛṣya, utprekṣā, ati-śaya, vibhāvanā, virodha, hetu and sama (343. 2-3); the figures upamā, rūpaka, sahokti, and arthāntara-nyāsa being included separately under sādṛṣya (343. 5), and mention being made of eighteen kinds of upamā embracing most of

²⁵ See V. Raghavan, Rīti and Guņa in the Agni-purāņa in IHQ, x (1934) pp. 776-79. The printed text in the Anandāśrama ed. appears to be corrupt; Raghavan suggests corrections and interpretations.

²⁶ It recognises nine classes of Sabdālamkāras, viz. Chāyā, Mudrā, Ukti, Yukti, Gumphanā. Vākovākyam, Anuprāsa (including Yamaka), Citra and Duskara (including Prahelikā).

Dandin's numerous subvarieties of that figures (343. 9 f). The Agni-purāṇa is also one of the earliest known works which adds a separate chapter on the ubhayālaṃkāras (not recognised by earlier writer), and this includes six varieties, viz. praśasti, kānti, aucitya, saṃkṣepa, yāvad-arthatā and abhivyakti (344. 2), some of which would come under Guṇas of other writers²⁷. Indeed, the classification and definition of the Guṇas and Alaṃkāras, which are not differentiated very clearly, would appear crude and unsystematic, when compared to the elaborate critical treatment of the Rīti and the Alamkāra schools.

From this brief outline, it will be clear enough that the Agni-purāṇa follows, in its general standpoint, none of the orthodox schools of Poetics, so far as they are known to us, although with regard-to its material it attempts to cull, in its cyclopaedic spirit, notions, expressions and even whole verses from the authors of the different schools, without, however, connecting them with a central theory. It borrows, for instance, Daṇḍin's definition of the kāvya-sarīra (istārtha-vyavacchinnā padāvalī), but the attempt to supplement it by adding kāvyam sphuṭad-alaṃkāram guṇavad doṣa-var-jitam (336.6-7), is merely eclectic and hardly constitutes an improvement. The same remarks apply to its definitions of fundamental notions like guṇa or alaṃkāra, which are merely copied or paraphrased uncritically from earlier writers. At the same time, mere eclecticism is not enough

²⁷ It is noteworthy in this connexion that Dandin's samādhi-guņa is treated here under the context of lakṣaṇā with a hint apparently of identifying them.—The borrowings from Bhāmaha and Dandin by the Purāṇa are extensive. For instance, the definitions of the figures rūpaka, ākṣepa, aprastuta-prasaṃsā. samāsokti and paryāyokta given by the Purāṇa (343. 22; 344. 15, 16, 18, 17) are almost the same as those of Bhāmaha (ii. 21, 68; iii. 29, 8; ii. 79); while the definitions of rūpaka, utprekṣā, viteṣokti, vibhāvanā, apahnuti and samādhi (343. 23, 24-25, 26-27, 27-28; 355. 18, 13) appear to have been repeated from Dandin (ii. 66, 221, 323, 199, 304; i. 93) respectively.

to explain certain features of this work; the peculiar treatment and arrangement, for instance, of the guņas and alaṃkāras which depart very strikingly from orthodox views of the matter. In order to explain this novelty, we should, having regard to the essentially derivative nature of the work itself, admit the probable existence of an altogether different line of speculation, of which unfortunately no other early traces are preserved.

This tradition of opinion we find fully developed in Bhoja. The prominence given to rasa and the absence of the dhvani-theory in Bhoja, therefore, need not surprise us; nor should the peculiar arrangement of the gunas and alamkāras appear unintelligible. The same reverence to Bharata and Dandin is shown throughout; and in fact, Dandin is estimated to have supplied Bhoja with more than two hundred unacknowledged quotations²⁸. At the same time. Bhoja very freely incorporates definite verses and illustrative stanzas from most of his well-known predecessors. especially from Bhamaha, Vamana, Rudrata and Dhanika, He even appropriates Kārikās from the Dhvanyāloka²⁰. although he does not accept its theory. His huge compilation, like its prototype the Agni-purāna, in more or less cyclopaedic in scope and eclectic in spirit, and represents apparently one of the several forms of arranging the teachings (with the exception of ignoring the dhvani-theory) of earlier schools in the light of a different tradition, of which another' form is perhaps preserved, to a certain extent, in the two Jaina Vagbhatas. But in some of the main points, similarity of his treatment to the Agni-purana is obvious, and here the teachings of the orthodox schools are of no avail. The verbal borrowings are numerous. Thus Agni 341, 18 f has much in common with Sarasvatī-kanthābharana ii, some

²⁸ While the Agni-purāņa takes no less than 160 passages from Dandin.

²⁹ As the Agni-purāņa appropriates six of its Kārīkās.

verses of the former being literally adopted by the latter. The Agni 341. 18-19, says:

ye vyutpattyādinā sabdam alaņkartum iha kşamāḥ |
śabdālankāram āhus tān kāvya-mīmānsā-kovidāh³º | |

This definition of a śabdālamkāra is adopted by Bhoja, with the only verbal change of the defective last line into śabdālamkāra-samjāās te jneyā jātyādayo budhaiļi (ii. 2). Such instances can be easily multiplied, and we may cite for comparison Agni 341. 21 and Bhoja ii. 39; Agni 342. 10 and Bhoja ii. 79; Agni 338, 11 and Bhoja v. 3, etc. Apart from this fact of literal similarity, which, however, is not conclusive. there is a striking coincidence, as we shall see presently, of treatment, as well as agreement of views on fundamental points, which is more than merely accidental. It is not suggested that Bhoja is directly copying from the Agni-purāna or the Purana copying directly from Bhoja; it is quite possible that they exploit in common an unknown source. But there is hardly any doubt that they follow a common tradition which is different in many respects from that of the Kashmirian writers.31

- 30 Instead of kāvy a-mīmāmsakā vidaļi in the text.
- 31 With regard to the relation between the Agni-purana-compiler and Bhoja, our views do not appear to have been clear to P. V. Kane and V. Raghavan. We have explicitly stated them in Poona Orientalist ii, p. 15-17; we repeat them here. A comparative study of Bhoja's Sarasvatī-k. and the Alamkāra-section of the Purāna would, in our opinion, indicate that (1) Both the works are more or less compilations, (2) As compilations both are eclectic, but not very well assorted and critical. (3) Both follow a tradition of opinion which is distinctive and which stands apart from that of the orthodox Kashmirian writers. (4) Bhoja is more systematic and certainly more elaborate, and the distinctive topics are found in Bhoja in a more developed form. These considerations led us to believe that there might be no question of direct mutual borrowing, but both were drawing upon a common source, and that the more elaborate and systematic Bhoja was probably chronologically later. If the Purana-compiler was later and took from Bhoja, it would be strange indeed that he should present as undeveloped and

Bhoja develops the definition of poetry given by the Agnipurāṇa by adding expressly Rasa among its essential characteristics, which, as the commentator Ratneśvara points out, indicates the influence of the "Kāśmīrakas":

nirdoşam gunavat kāvyam alamkārair alamkītam/rasānvitam.....(i. 2).

In conformity to this definition, which mentions rather uncritically all the requisite elements, Bhoja deals in the first chapter with the Dosas and Gunas and devotes the next three chapters respectively to the consideration of poetic figures (Alamkāras) of sabda, of artha, and of both sabda and artha. In the last chapter is given a detailed treatment of Rasa, for Bhoja thinks that rasokti is essential in poetry (v. 8). But like the author of the Agni-purāna, Bhoja is not explicit with regard to the question of correlating this aesthetic element with other elements of poetry, and his conception of Rasa bears resemblance to that of the utpatti-vadins whose causal theory, as Abhinavagupta points out, is accepted by earlier authors like Dandin. No deubt, in one verse (i. 158) Bhoja is apparently of opinion that a poem is relished only if it contains the Gunas, even though it may possess v' ious kinds of poetic figures; for even excellent poetic figures in a composition without the Gunas present an ugly aspect, as the form of a woman, destitute of youth, looks ugly even, though she wears excellent ornaments. But this verse is only an unacknowledged quotation from Vamana (iii. 1. 2. Vrtti). and must be taken as an instance of eulogistic statements, not unusual in Sanskrit writers, made for the purpose of simply emphasising a point, or as a characteristic of the uncritical and confused nature of the work itself: for otherwise we cannot reconcile this dictum with others of a similar nature made in connexion with Rasa or Alamkara.

unsystematic what was already developed and systematic in his presumed source. It would hardly make any difference if the Purapacompiler is proved later than Bhoja; but as our available evidence is at best uncertain, it would be better to leave the question open. Although Bhoja puts a great deal of emphasis on Rasa, probably in accordance with the views of the new school of Anandavardhana and Abhinavagupta, he cannot yet be taken as an adherent of the Dhvani school, nor of the older Rasa school. Bhoja mentions here as many as twelve Rasas, adding the śānta, preyas, udātta and uddhata, to the eight orthodox Rasas mentioned by Bharata (vi. 15)³²; but in his treatment he follows the Agni-purāṇa tradition in singling out the Śṛṅgāra for almost exclusive attention. This trait is also noticeable in his other work, Śṛṅgāra-prakāśa, in which he accepts only one Rasa, the Erotic²³, thus justifying its title.

Bhoja modifies the Agni-purana's classification of the Gunas by dividing the general (sāmānya) Guņas, according as they relate to sabda and artha, into external (bahya) and internal (ābhyantara), on the one hand, with specific (vaisesika) Gunas on the other. By the last he understands those which under special circumstances are Gunas in spite of their being essentially Dosas or faults (i. 60 f). He carries the differentiation and multiplication of Gunas still further, and enumerates twenty-four sabda-gunas and as many artha-gunas, again, of identical names. Like the Agni-purana, Bhoja is not very precise or critical in his definitions of individual Gunas, and he assigns to some Gunas properties which are ascribed to Alamkāras by other writers. It is curious to note that the arthaguņa kānti is defined, after Vāmana, as dīpta-rasatvam (i. 81). including Rasa therein; and in the sabda-guna gāmbhīr) a (i. 73) is incorporated the concept of Dhvani. At the same

³² Of these Santa and Preyas are already recognised. The four additional Rasas (to orthodox eight) are meant to be associated with the four kinds of heroes, namely, Dhira-santa, Dhira-lalita, Dhirodatta and Dhiroddhata respectively. See V. Raghavan, Number of Rasas, pp. 121-22.

³³ So says Vidyādhara, p. 98; also Kumārasvāmin, p. 221, and the author of Mandāra-maranda-campū ix, p. 107. See Vol i pp. 136-38, or a detailed account of Bhoja's conception of Rasa in Sarasvatī-k. and Srigāra-pr. See V. Raghavan, Śrigāra-prakāśa pp. 418-542.

time, Rasa is taken elsewhere as a fundamental aesthetic concept, and the idea of Dhvani is omitted from his treatment. Bhoja, however, does not pay any homage to Vāmana's classification of Rīti, the elaboration of which he carries still further. He adds two more types of Rītis, viz. āvantikā and māgadhī (ii. 32), to the four mentioned by the Agni-purāṇa, the former of these being an intermediate kind between vaidarbhī and pāñcālī. and the latter forming only a Khaṇḍa-rīti, i.e. defective or incomplete type. It is also noteworthy that some of the upamā-doṣas, such as hīnatva and adhikatva, are included in the general discussion of Doṣas as hīnopamā and adhikopamā, and not mentioned, in the usual manner, in connexion with the figure upamā itself.

In the treatment of Alamkaras, Bhoja is one of the earliest writers who, in common with the Agni-purana, classifies them into three groups, viz. śabdālamkāra, arthālamkāra, and ubhayālamkāra. Without entering into details here, we may state that Bhoja's treatment is much fuller³⁴. He enumerates. for instance, and defines the largest number of śabdūlamkāras mentioned by any author, namely twenty-four, and develops further the treatments of Dandin, the Agni-purana and The number of arthalamkaras, however, is Rudrata. surprisingly limited, and a love of symmetry probably leads him to enumerate them also as twenty-four in number. which is also the number of the ubhayālamkāras. The most curious chapter is that which deals with the last-named class of poetic figures, which includes figures like upamā, rūpaka, utpreksā, dīpaka, atišaya and other well-recognised arthālamkāras. Mammata later on admits this three-fold classification of poetic figures, which is not recognised by all, but unlike

³⁴ His treatment also is sometimes very curious. He makes poetic figures, for instance, out of the six pramāṇas of Jaimini (cf. Māṇikya-candra on this point at p. 304). One of the results of this is that he has to admit the philosophical idea of upamāna (as a means of knowledge) in a poetic figure of that name, and distinguish it as a figure from the well-known figure upamā.

Bhoja, he includes a very limited number in the mixed third class of Ubhayālamkāra, such as punaruktavad-ābhāsa, in which stress is laid equally on śabda and artha.

This novel and somewhat unorthodox standpoint, which follows a peculiar line of speculation different in some respects from the accepted views of the various established schools, makes Bhoja's work an interesting study; but its theoretic importance has been exaggerated. The work, no doubt, possesses a certain importance for this unique treatment in the history of Sanskrit Poetics; but its value consists. not in its theories, nor in its discussion of general principles. but in its being a very elaborate, if somewhat diffuse, manual and an exhaustive store-house of definitions and illustrations. for which not only the works of Alamkarikas but also of almost all the well-known poets have been laid under contribution. The later writers, in spite of the fascination which the magic name of Bhojaraja carries with it, cite this work chiefly for its abundant wealth of illustration, or for the purpose of supporting some unorthodox view to which Bhoja might have lent the authority of his name. The learning which this work parades, though extensive, is ill-assorted and uncritical, its ideas lacking in system and its expression in preciseness. The school of opinion which Bhoja represents does not appear to have received any support or following in later times³⁵.

Vidyānātha (as well as Prakāśavarşa in his Rasūrnavālaṃkāra) appears to be the one writer who goes to the length of following Bhoja's elaborate classification of the Guṇas (see below, ch. vii).—Bhoja's truly "mammoth" work, the Śṛṇgāra-prakāsa, has not yet been published, but a detailed account of its contents will be found in V. Raghavan's thesis on the same. It has the same eclectic and encyclopaedic character of an ali-comprehending type (but on a much more extended scale) as his presumably earlier and smaller work, the Sarasvatī-kanṭhābharaṇa. With regard to subject-matter and essential ideas, however, it adds nothing substantially new which is not contained in a brief form in Sarasvatī-k. In spite of its name the Śṛṇgāra-pr. comprehends in its

36 chapters most of the important topics of Poetics and some of Dramaturgy. Thus, ch. i-vi. deal with Sabda and Artha; ch. vii-xi with grammatical and poetical aspects of Sahitya of Sabda and Artha, including treatment of Dosa, Guna and Alamkara: ch. xii, mainly with Drama and its general features; ch. xiii-xiv with a preliminary treatment of Rasa; ch. xv-xvii with Vibhavas and Anubhavas of Rati; ch. xviii-xxi with four \$rhgaras of four Purusarthas-viz. \$rhgaras of Dharma, Artha, Kāma and Moksa; ch. xxii-xxxvi with elaboration of the lower Srigara Rasa (apart from the higher Srigara of Abhimana explained in ch. xi) of Rati between man and woman. Thus, after dealing with Doşa-hāna, Gunopādāna, Alamkāra-yoga and Rasa-viyoga (which last should be avoided) he gives an exposition of his theory of Ahamkara-Abhimana-Srngara Rasa. With reference to the general features of the Drama he devotes a large part of his work to the two phases of Vipralambha and Sambhoga Śrigāra viewed as a relation between man and woman.

CHAPTER VII

MAMMATA AND THE NEW SCHOOL

(1)

The foregoing sketch of the progress of the principal schools and systems, terminating in the dominance of the Dhyani school, will make it clear that the history of Sanskrit Poetics is marked by two or three well-defined stages 1. The dim beginnings of the science are indeed hidden from us, but we enter upon the first historic stage of its formulation, in a more or less developed form, in the works of Bhamaha and Dandin. This is followed by a fruitful and creative stage. ending with Abhinavagupta, in which the theories of the different schools or systems were settled in their general outlines, giving rise to four distinct schools of opinion, respectively represented by the Rasa-, Alamkara-, Riti- and Dhvani-systems. It covers more than three centuries, and includes some of the great names in the history of the discipline, like those of Bhāmaha, Udbhaṭa and Rudraṭa, of Lollata, Sankuka and Bhatta Nayaka, of Dandin and Vamana, of the Dhvanikāra, Anandavardhana and Abhinavagupta, of Kuntaka, Mahimabhatta and Bhoja: all of whom helped. in a constructive or destructive way, to shape the different currents of thought which ultimately ran into one stream in the standard text-book of Mammata.

If we attempt to discriminate between these different schools of thought and roughly indicate the broad steps taken in the progress of the discipline, we can state generally that the Alamkara system proposed to confine itself to a theory of embellishment (alamkara) of expression consistently with what was probably the original tradition of the discipline;

¹ See vol. i, pp. 322 f.

the Rasa system, starting with the consideration of the drama, was responsible for introducing into poetic theory the subjective element of rasa, represented by the feelings, moods and sentiments; the Riti system laid stress on the objective beauty of representation realised by means of diction (rīti) and its constituent excellences (gunas); while the Dhvani system, admitting the underlying truth of all these doctrines. elaborated a peculiar theory of suggestion in poetry (dhvani). including the suggestion of rasa, to which everything else was correlated. It will be seen from this that a relative emphasis was laid on the elements of alamkāra, rasa, rīti (including guna and dosa) and dhvani by each of these systems; and although the soft hand of Indian dialectics drew lines of fantastic ideas, consisting of odd and abstruse schemes, it is on these essential points that the theories centred themselves, and the main currents flowed thereof in different directions. It was, however, realised in the end that all these gleams of thought must be gathered into a focus, and all these currents must be made to flow into one stream. The purely normative character of the discipline began to disappear, and it was understood that, however much importance was attached to the fact of externalisation, to the consideration of embellishment or diction, it was far outbalanced by the most necessary and important principle of higher poetry, viz, the art of suggestion, especially connected with the art of suggesting a peculiar mental condition of enjoyment. technically known as rasa, of which the charm lies in a disinterested and impersonal pleasure in the mind, the attitude proper to contemplation of the beautiful².

2 The problem, therefore, does not consern rhetoric merely, and the ideal of beauty (if the expression is allowable) is no longer conceived from the outside, being associated with a peculiar condition of artistic enjoyment, the suggestion of which is taken as the chief function of poetry. As explained by an able critic of Sanskrit literature (Oldenberg, Die Literatur des alten Indien, pp. 207f), the Indian theorists permit intellectual vigour and subtlety, the masculine beauty, to stand behind that of purely feminine enjoyment born of the finest sensibility. Both

This period ends with the ultimate standardisation ot a more or less complete scheme of Poetics, outlined in the Dhvanyāloka, in which an attempt is made to bring into a definite focus the scattered ideas of previous speculation. The period which followed this and with which we are concerned in this and following chapters, is necessarily a stage of critical elaboration, the chief work of which consists in summarising and setting forth, in the concise form of textbooks, the results of earlier speculations. The stage is marked by great scholastic acumen, if not by remarkable originality or creative genius, but it denotes also a progressive deterioration of the study itself. It covers the age of numberless commentaries, which may be characterised, like the scholia uropean classical literature, as consisting mostly of "comments on comments of annotated annotations". busy themselves with the explanation, expansion or restriction of the already established rules. Ve have also the rise of a number of popular writers and textbook makers who wanted to simplify the science for general enlightenment, the lowest stage being reached when we come to manuals and schoolbooks of comparatively recent times.

It is difficult to classify some of these writers. Here and

of ecstatic rapture side by side with a strong inclination towards sagacity and subtlety. It is true that the dogmatic formalism of a scholastic discipline naturally sank to the level of a cold and monotonously inflated rhetoric; but at the same time it must be admitted that the theorists were not blind to finer issues, nor were they indifferent to the supreme excellence of real poetry and the aesthetic pleasure resulting from it. They always take care to add that despite dogmas the poetic imagination must show itself; and the ultimate test of poetry is the appreciation of the sahrdaya, the man of taste, whose technical knowledge must be equal to his finer capacity of aesthetic enjoyment, born out of wide culture and identification with the feelings and sentiments of the poet. As this capacity, which is likened to the bliss of divine contemplation, is vouchsafed only to the fit and few, the critic as well as the poet is born, and not made.

there we find isolated and straggling followers of the older schools. Some are frankly uncritical, some merely eclectic: while others are characterised by the very modest ambition of producing nothing more than a popular text-book. But the majority of the writers of this period, which covers more than five or six centuries, accept, with some reservations, the Dhvani-theory and the scheme of Poetics as finally determined by Mammata. There are small groups of writers who devote themselves to special topics, like kavi-siksā or the subject of rasa (especially spingara-rasa), but this apparent branching off from the main stem of the finally authoritative Dhvani system, is to be explained as due rather to the following of older traditions, or perhaps to the refining or analytic spirit of the times, than to any real split in the domain of general theory. With regard to matters of general theory and the main problems, the decadent Post-dhvani writers as a rule thought that there was nothing new to set forth; they consequently fell back on matters of detail which helped to satisfy their growing speculative passion for fine distinctions and their scholastic bent for controversy. It would be tedious, as well as useless, therefore, to treat them here at any great length, for they repeat more or less the same idea in their own way, sometimes in the same stock manner and phraseology, and differ from each other only in matters of no great theoretic importance. The only subject worth studying in them is their minute analysis and elaboration of numberless poetic figures, which are not treated, as not coming perhaps within the scope of their general exposition, by the Dhvanikara and Anandavardhana, but which occupy a very considerable position in later literature. Here was room enough to supplement, as Ruyyaka expressly states, the treatment of their predecessors; and this portion of their work is beaten out with such extreme nicety and elaborateness that the Alamkara-sastra, judging from these works alone, would be, as it often has been, designated as a study of Rhetoric merely. But even from

Ruyyaka's time, the scope and nature of most of the individual figures appear to have been fairly fixed, only to be criticised and improved upon here and there by such later writers as Jagannātha.

It is important, however, to note that although this new school (navyāḥ, aravācīnāḥ) accepts in the main the general position of the Dhvani school, it is yet not entirely free from the influence of older schools. It betrays a lurking regard for older writers and brings back, rightly or wrongly, some of the old ideas into the elaboration of its own theory of poetry. It is difficult, for this reason, to take these writers in a lump and affiliate them directly to the Dhvani school. Mammata's definition of poetry, for instance, is not altogether free from the influence of the views of such older writers as Vamana; Ruyyaka follows Udbhata and Kuntaka extensively in his detailed analysis of poetic figures; Visvanātha clearly betrays the influence of the Rasa school on his own system; while Jagannātha revives in a new form the old definition of poetry given by Dandin. It is remarkable that most of these writers attempt to arrive at a precise definition of poetry, a task which was wisely left alone by the Dhvanikara; but in doing so, they probably meant to find out a comprehensive formula to cover the old ideas as well as the new, although it must be said that they succeed less often than they involve themselves in hopeless inconsistencies. This reactionary tendency, however, is interesting as indicating that they were not unconscious of the importance of earlier views as they were not entirely content with the clear-cut scheme of the Dhvanyāloka; a fact which would go to demonstrate, to some extent, that want of originality is a charge which cannot be brought in its entirety against these followers of the finally dominant Dhvani system.

(2)

Mammata

The first and foremost writer of this group is Mammata,

whose Kāvya-prakāśa must have helped a great deal, judging from its popularity and influence, in finally establishing the authority of the Kashmirian school of Anandavardhana. This work, combining as it does the merit of fulness with that of conciseness, not only summed up previous speculations in Poetics in the succinct form of a text-book, but it became in its turn the starting point of endless text-books and exegesis.

Mammata's general standpoint will be obvious at a glance by examining his well known definition of poetry. Although he adheres in the main to the teachings of the Dhvani school and accepts Rasa as an important element of poetry, his definition tad a-doşau śabdarthau saguņāvanalamkrtī punaķ kvāpi ("poetry consists in word and sense, devoid of the defects and possessing the excellences, and sometimes devoid also of poetic figures") follows the time-honoured custom of starting with word and sense (sabda and artha) and mentioning the guna, dosa and alamkāra; but it does not expressly include any reference to dhyani and rasa, which are apparently comprehended by implication. For, following up this definition, Mammata begins with the discussion of the functions of sabda and artha, incidentally establishing the function of suggestion (vyanjana) and the superiority of the suggested sense (vyangya artha or dhvani), and divides poetry into three classes (viz. dhvani, gunībhūta-vyangya and citra) in relation to the suggested sense. This leads him to enumerate and exemplify the various subdivisions of these three classes of poetry, and in this connexion dilate upon the nature and theory of Rasa, which is included in the scope of "suggestion of imperceptible process" (asamlaksya-krama vyangya). In this context, he examines and rejects the views of Lollata, Sankuka and Bhatta Nāyaka, and accepts the vyakti-vāda which he ascribes to Abhinavagupta. Mention is made of eight orthodox dramatic Rasas, (astau natve rasah smṛtāḥ), but the ninth Rasa, the sānta, is added, apparently as elevant to poetry.

Mammata then proceeds to discuss the Guna and Dosa. not in relation to poetry in general as his definition would imply, but in relation to their subserviency or otherwise to the awakening of Rasa. The Gunas as excellences of composition are interpreted in a new sense (after Anandavardhana) and brought into effective relation with the underlying sentiment in a work, as qualities which serve to heighten its charm. The verbal form of a work cannot be said to possess the qualities of energy or sweetness (except by way of analogy), unless we mean by it that the underlying sentiment is vigorous or sweet. The Gunas, therefore, are related to the Rasa, as virtues like heroism are related to the soul of a man. The verbal form, the mere sound, produces the excellences only as a means or instrument; the real cause is the Rasa, even as the soul is the true cause of virtues like The same consideration applies also to heroism in a man. the case of poetic figures (Alamkaras), and their place in poetry is justified by their relation to Rasa. They are compared to ornaments on a man's body; and as such, they adorn words and meanings which constitute the 'body' of poetry. They thus serve to embellish indirectly (through sound and sense) the underlying soul of sentiment, but not invariably. If the Rasa is absent, they produce mere variety of expression. It should also be noted that the Gunas are accepted, after Anandavardhana, as three in numbers, and it is maintained

3 Mammata demonstrates with some care that it is not necessary to accept the ten Gunas of Vāmana, but that it is quite enough if we postulate three comprehensive excellences, viz. ojas (energy), prasāda (lucidity) and mādhurya (sweetness). If we examine the Gunas of Vāmana critically, we find that some of them can very well be included in these three; some constitute mere absense of defects; while others are sometimes positive defects. Thus, Vāmana's sleşa, samādhi and udāratā are comprehended by ojas; artha-vyakti is merely an aspect of prasāda; samatā, consisting of a certain uniformity of diction, is sometimes a fault; while saukumārya and kānti, defined respectively as freedom from harshness (or inauspiciousness) and vulgarity, are simply the reverse of the defects śruti-kasta and grāmyatva. These consi-

that combination of particular letters signify particula Gunas, so that the three Vittis of Udbhata (and roughly the three Rītis of Vāmana) are equalised to the three Gunas defined by himself. Mammata admits Dosas of pada, vākya

derations simplify the classification of the Gunas and put a limit to their useless multiplication or differentiation (witness, e.g. Bhoja's elaborate scheme of 24 Gunas). Mammuja, therefore, thinks that the distinction between sabda-guna and artha-guna is meaningless, for the latter need not be separately considered. The mental activity, involved in the enjoyment of Rasa, is made to justify only three (and not ten) Gunas which are thus brought into effective relation with the principal sentiment of a composition. Thus, the vias is supposed to cause a brilliant expansion (vistāra) of the mind and resides in the moods of heroism, horror and fury; the prasada, proper to all the moods, is taken as the cause of a quick apprehension of the sense, extending over the mind at once (vyāpti or vikāsa), like a stream of water over a cloth, or like fire among dry fuel (cf. Bharata vii. 7); while the mādhurya, residing normally in the erotic mood of love-in-union, but also appropriate to and rising successively in degree in pathos, love-in-separation and calm, is regarded as causing a softening or melting of the heart (druti). The three conditions of the mind, viz. expanding pervading and melting, which accompany the poetic sentiments, are thus made the basis of the three Gunas; and though these mental states are sometimes mixed up and lead to various other mental conditions, these latter effects are too many and too indistinct to be taken as the basis of new Gunas. This exposition follows and expands Dhvanyaloka ii. 8-11 (see above pp. 171f); but it is possible that the original hint of associating these effects on the mental condition of the reader with the three Gunas was supplied by Bhatta Nāyaka ('Locana p. 68) who speaks of the enjoyment (bhoga) of Rasa as being characterised by the mental conditions of expanding (vistāra), prevading (vikāsa) and melting (druti). Visvanātha substantially agrees with this view of Mammata; but he takes the technical objection that the ojas etc. are not the causes of, but identical with, the process of expansion etc.

4 See above p. 104. We have seen above that Mammata explains away the so-called excellences of sense (artha-guṇas), so that the Guṇas are confined to the sphere of sound. They are produced by a particular arrangement of letters (varṇa), compounds (samāsa) and mode of composition (racanā). Thus, the mādhurya or sweetness results from the employment of (i) all sparša letters or mutes (from k to m), excepting

and artha, as well as Doşas of Rasa, a mode of treatment which is followed by most later writers. Although the poetic figures are not, in his opinion, always necessary to poetry, he rounds off his treatise with an elaborate analysis and illustration of figures of sound and sense (including a limited number of figures which are of a mixed kind), enumerating as many as sixty-seven independent figures.

From this brief summary of the topics of Mammata's work, it will be clear that its value consists not in its originality but in its orderly and concise discussion of the main issues (excepting those of Dramaturgy, which Hemacandra, Vidyānātha and Viśvanātha include in an attempt to supplement). His definitions as well as general treatment attempt to cover almost all fields of thought traversed by his predecessors.

the cerebrals (1, 1h, d, dh) coming with the last letters (nasals) of their respective class, (11) r and n with short vowels, as well as from (iii) complete absence of compounds or presence of short compounds. The ojas or energy is produced by (1) compound letters formed by the combination of the first and third letters of a class with the letters immediately following them (i.e. with the second and fourth letters respectively) (ii) conjunct consonants of which r forms a part, (iii) cerebrals other than n (which letter is indicative of madhurva), (iv) doubled letters. i. e. combinations of the same letters, (v, palatal and cerebral sibilants (s, s). (vi) long compounds, and (vii) a formidable or bombastic style. For obvious reasons there are no rules for prasada. The letters mentioned here are mostly the same as those given by Udbhata as suggestors of upanāgarikā, purusā, and komalā (or grāmyā) Vittis iespectively. Mammata, therefore, thinks that Udbhata's three Vrttis, which Udbhata himself comprehends under vrttyanuprāsa, are really equivalent to the three Ritis of Vamana and to his own three Gunas.

5 From the new standpoint, Vāmana's view that the Guṇas produce the beauty of a poem, while the Alamkāras merely heighten the beauty thus produced, is clearly inadequate. Mammata argues in this way. If the doctrine is taken to mean that the possession of all the excellences constitutes poetry, the gaudī and the pāñcālī which are not marked by all the Guṇas, would not be poetical; if, however, the presence of a single excellence is enough to dignify a composition to the rank of poetry, then we are driven to accept even a perfectly unpoetical passage as poetry, if it contains, say, the quality of energy.

The great popularity and authority which the Kāvya-prakāśa has always enjoyed and which is indicated by the large number of commentaries on it, must be explained as due not to any remarkable novelty of treatment, but to the clear and lucid (albeit the obscurities due to its brevity of exposition, necessitating commentaries) working out of the already accumulated stock of ideas in the light of the new scheme put forward in the *Dhvanyāloka*.

But from the theoretical point of view, Mammata's definition of poetry has been subjected to much vigorous criticism. Visvanātha, for instance, undoubtedly takes Mammata's work as the basis (upajīvya) of his own, but begins his Sāhitya-darpana with a trenchant attack on his definition. He points out, in the tirst place, that the Gunas being merely properties of Rasa, should not have been logically included in the definition of essentials. He shows next that if only faultless (adosa) compositions be called poetry, some of the best poems will have to be given up. inasmuch as it is almost impossible to keep clear of all blemishes. Nor could it be said that faults mar only those particular words or their meanings in which they occur; for if they are faults at all, bearing relation to the underlying sentimen't in the composition, they must mar the whole poem. Lastly, he maintains that no reference to poetic figures ought to have been made in the definition, as they are admittedly non-essential. Jagannatha's criticism is more fundamental. although he agrees with Viśvanātha as to the impropriety of including a reference to guna, dosa, and alamkara in the definition. He objects that a word and its sense are not what is denoted by the term 'poetry'; for the universal use of such expressions as 'a poem is read but its meaning is not understood' shows clearly that a particular kind of words only is what is meant. If it is said that the essence of poetry lies in its capability of producing a mood (rasa), and that inasmuch as a word and its sense have this capability, both constitute poetry, then it can be replied that, according to this too wide

view, musical tones and theatrical getures will have to be called poetry.

Some of these and other arguments appear, no doubt, fastidious and pedantic, and have been met with equal ingenuity by the commentators and followers of Mammata; but the whole controversy indicates the futility of arriving at a precise logical definition of poetry and the difficulty of combining all the conventional elements in such a definition. The earlier theorists probably realised this and carefully avoided the task, for even the Dhvanikāra contents himself with describing its general nature and its divisions, an omission on which Mahimabhatta ridicules him by saying: kim ca kāvyasya svarūpam vyutpādayitukāmena matimatā tallakṣaṇam eva sāmānyenūkhyātavyam.

From the historical point of view, however, the definition is interesting, its apparent inconsistency and obscurity being a curious fact which can reasonably be explained by a reference to the views of the older schools and systems. The term rasa does not occur in the definition, and the fact that Mammata accepts the citra-kāvya, which is grudgingly admitted by Anandayardhana as a division of poetry, would indicate, as Visvanātha points out, that Mammata does not consider Rasa to be essential. Yet he defines Guna and Dosa in terms of their relation to Rasa, a procedure which is not justifiable if the essentiality of Rasa is not admitted. On the other hand, if it is maintained that all reference to Rasa is omitted in the definition because it is such a well known and established fact in the poetical and critical world, then the prominence of threefold suggestion and the division of poetry on its basis are hardly explicable. The mention of Guna and Doşa should in that case be omitted, as done by Jagannatha, from the definition, which corresponds more to the definition of Vāmana (i. 1. 1-3); and these two elements must be understood in the sense in which Vamana takes them, viz. as properties of sabda and artha.6 This and other discrepancies

6 This is the modified view of Jagannatha who realises the difficulty

make it probable that Mammaja, belonging as he does to the new school, is influenced to a great extent by the views of the older schools. He accepts, no doubt, the general scheme and theory of the Dhvani school, but in trying to reconcile them with those of earlier theorists, he lands himself in objectionable inconsistencies.

(3)

Viśvanātha

Even the definition of Viśvanātha, who took upon himself the task of criticising Mammata, is open to similar objections. and has been criticised in its turn by Govinda and Jagannātha. In declaring that poetry consists of a sentence of which the soul' is rasa (vākyam rasātmakam kāvyam), he is indeed betraying the unmistakable influence, of the Rasa school; but he is also putting into a shape, in a way clearer than Abhinavagupta does, the essentiality of rasa-dhvani, wisely left unstated but practically meant by the authors of the Dhvanyāloka. In taking up this extreme position, Viśvanātha involves himself, however, in the somewhat clumsy subterfuge of admitting a distant touch of Rasa (rasa-sparsa) in all poetry, even in what is professedly descriptive or ornamental. Even if it is ideally correct to say that a poem ought always to manifest the Rasa alone, it does not, as a matter of fact, always do so. Jagannātha rightly objects that Viśvanātha's definition would exclude poems in which the centre of gravity lies only in the matter (vastu-dhvani) or in the imaginative mood (alamkāra-dhvani). The opponent cannot reply that this is exactly his own opinion, for thereby he goes against the view of ancient authorities, as well as against the establi-

and does not agree with Mammata (see Rasa-gangādhara p. 55). Similarly Vidyānātha, though belonging to the new school, would accept (p. 334) Udbhata's dictum saṃghatanā-dharmā guṇāḥ.

⁷ See above ch. v, p. 166; ch. vi, p. 178f.

⁸ p. 7-8. Cf Prabhā, ed. N. S. P. 1912, p. 11.

shed practice of great poets, who have admitted the scope of fact and imagination, and described subjects like a flood or narrated a travel, in which there is hardly any touch of Rasa. it would not do, therefore, to accept the rasa-dhvani alone; for a complete definition must also take into account vastu-Ilivani and alamkāra-dhvani. Visvanātha anticipates this objection by saying that in cases other than those admitted expressly by himself there is always a semblance of Rasa (rasābhāsa); and the verse given in the Dhvanyāloka as an instance of vastu-dhvani is, in his opinion, admissible only because there is such a touch of Rasa in it, and not because mere vyangya vastu can constitute the essence of poetry. Jagannātha replies that nothing is gained by such a supposition of an indirect reference to Rasa, because such a reference may also be construed in phrases like 'the cow moves' or 'the deer leaps,' This cannot be taken as the sole criterion, because thereby any and every content of poetry would be reduced to the position of an excitant, an ensuant or an accessory of Rasa.

Apart from this technicality and the emphasis put on the essentiality of Rasa, which however is not reconciled to other elements of poetry, Viśvanātha's scheme does not substantially differ from that of Mammata, on whose work he also appears to have written a commentary. In one passage, indeed, he pays an elegant tribute to his predecessor's work by admitting his own indebtedness to it. After defining peetry as a sentence the 'soul' of which is Rasa, he proceeds in the usual way to analyse the 'sentence' $(v\bar{a}kya)$ and the different functions of its constituent word and sense, establishing suggestion or vyaniana as the function necessary and important for the purpose of conveying the suggested Rasa (bodhe rasādīnām). He accepts only two divisions of poetry, viz., dhvani and guṇībhūta-vyangya kāvya, and rejects the third, the citra-kāvya (which is suffered by Anandavardhana and accepted by Mammata) on the ground that it is entirely devoid of Rasa and therefore inconsistent with his own

definition of poetry. It is curious, however, that Visvanatha, following Anandavardhana, partially admits the suggestion of vastu and alamkāra under suggestion of perceptible process (kramoddyota-vyangya), based on the power of word or sense or both. The case of poetry of subordinate suggestion (gunībhūta-vyangya), where the Rasa involved is secondary, is justified by holding that the mere circumstance of the Rasa being collaterally suggested does not destroy the claim of such poetry; for the relish of Rasa alone, whether circumstantial or essential, is the true criterion. It is this partiality for Rasa which makes him include a treatment. omitted by most writers on Poetics, of dramatic composition. in which the delineation of the Rasas, the moods and sentiments, is already established as fundamental by both poets Consistently with the same idea, a Dosa or and theorists. blemish is defined as the detractor of the Rasa (rasāpakarsaka), while a Guna is explained as a particular mode or quality of the Rasa depending on sabda and artha and enhancing the charm of the Rasa when Rasa is principal. The Gunas are really attributes of Rasa, but they are secondarily spoken of as belonging to a word and its sense: which secondary use also explains the old distinction between sabda-guna and artha-guna. The Gunas are accepted as three in number, viz. mādhurya, ojas and prasāda, depending upon a combination of particular letters and justified by the attributes of expanding, pervading and melting the mind in its enjoyment of Rasa; and the ten Gunas of older writers are mentioned and criticised after the manner of Mammaja. It is curious, however, that Viśvanātha admits the Rītis separately. instead of comprehending them as Mammata does, under the Vrttis or considering them redundant after the enumeration of the three Gunas. He defines the Rīti as pada-samghatanā⁹ or particular arrangement of words (and letters) which helps the Rasas (upakartrī rasādīnām). The Rīti, however, relates

⁹ By the term samphatanā stress in laid on its technical sense of Samāsa-vṛttti, but this is not the only criterion.

entirely to the external framework of poetry, and is likened to the conformation of the body in relation to the soul. Finally, the poetic figures (alamkāras), which are treated substantially after the manner of Mammaja and Ruyyaka, are defined as those non-permanent attributes of word and its sense which add to their beauty and thus embellish the Rasa indirectly. The term 'non-permanent' (asthira) is explained, after Mammaja, by the statement that the presence of the Alamkāras is not necessary but accidental, as compared to the Gunas which are necessary attributes.

The above sketch of Viśvanātha's general position will sufficiently indicate that he is more or less a compiler and not an original writer, although he shows some constructive ability in elaborating a full and compact system of his own on the basis of rasa-dhvani. His borrowings from Ānanda-vardhana, Mammaṭa and Ruyyaka are very extensive; and sometimes his judgment forsakes him, making him copy his originals rather slavishly. He is not always happy in his innovations, and sometimes (though rarely) he is wrong or inconsistent in his interpretation. In spite of these and other defects his work is interesting in the history of Sanskrit Poetics as an attempt at a further development of the Dhvanitheory out of itself, an attempt to which recognition was not

¹⁰ Viśvanātha speaks of four Rītis as follow: (i) vaidarbhī or sweet style (marked by letters indicative of mādhurya, and by short compounds or absence of compounds). (ii) gaudī or bombastic style (marked by letters indicative of ojas and possessing a large number of compounds). (iii) pāncālī (marked by letters other than those mentioned above and containing five or six compound words). (iv) lāti or the style intermediate between vaidarbhī and pāncālī. This is only a variation on the conventional enumeration; but strictly speaking, Mammata is right in not considering the Rītis separately, as they are comprehended by the three Vṛttis or even by the three Guṇas accepted by the new school. Viśvanātha alludes to Vṛttis under vṛttyanuprāsa and simply says (after Ruyyaka): rasa-viṣaya-vṛāpāravatī varṇa-racanā vṛttiḥ, tad-anugatatvena prakarṣeṇa nyasanād vṛttyanuprāsaḥ.

universally accorded by other strict followers of the theory. The Sāhitya-darpaṇa, written like the Kāvya-prakāśa in the form of Kārikā with Vṛtti, has also the great merit of being written in a more simple and less controversial style than the treatises of Mammata and Jagannātha respectively; and as a suitable and complete manual of Poetics, including a treatment of the dramatic art, it has always held its popularity as one of the most convenient text-books on the subject as a whole.

(4)

Ruyyaka

One of the most important writers of this group is Ruyyaka, who comes immediately after Mammata and who also appears to have written a commentary on Mammata's work. In his treatment of the poetic figures with which his work (as its name Alamkāra-sarvasva implies) is directly concerned, he shows, however, a remarkable degree of insight and independence of judgment which distinguishes him from his predecessor. The value of his contribution in this respect may be judged from the fact that his Alamkara-sarvasva not only helped to define and fix the conception of an alamkara. of which the first indication was given by Kuntaka but which was left untouched by the authors of the Dhvanyāloka, but it had also a great influence in establishing by its careful analysis the scope and nature of individual poetic figures, so that his views on this matter have been accepted as authoritative by such important later writers as Visvanatha. Vidyādhara, Vidyānātha and Appayya Dīksita.

The plan of Ruyyaka's work, written in the form Sūtra with Vṛtti, is stated by himself in the introductory portion of his Vṛtti. He starts, in common with other followers of the Dhvani school, with the suggested sense (pratīyamāna artha) and demonstrates by a rapid survey of the views of older writers that it was directly or indirectly recognised by

all. But he thinks that, in the opinion of the authorities who came before the Dhvani school, the chief function of the suggested sense consisted in embellishing the expressed meaning (vācyopaskāra), and therefore it was naturally comprehended in the sphere of poetic figures in which the expressed sense prevailed11. This is generally the view of Bhamaha, Dandin, Udbhata, Vamana and Rudrata. Vakroktijīvita-kāra, who came after Anandavardhana, includes all ideas of Dhvani in a variety of Vakrokti based on upacāra or metaphorical expression. Bbatta Nāyaka maintains that the suggested sense, established chiefly through the forcible utterance of the poet (kavi-praudhokti) is only a secondary element in poetry, the essential thing being the relish of Rasa realised through a function called bhoga or enioyment, which is distinct from and which transcends the denotative or generalising functions of words. The Vyaktiviveka-kara takes the relation of the expressed and the suggested in terms of the logical linga and lingin, and regards the process of suggestion as a process of inference. None of these views comes up to that of the Dhvanikāra, which is, therefore, accepted indisputably by Ruyyaka, who lays down sententiously at the end: asti tāvad vyangya-niṣṭho vyanjanāvyāpāraņ. The three divisions of poetry into dhvani, guņībhūta vyangya and citra are also recognised; but as the first two are already discussed in the Alamkāra-manjarī12 (p. 15) and the Dhvanyāloka respectively, Ruyyaka proposes in this treatise to take up the remaining citra-kāvya, which, including in its scope all poetic figures devoid of suggestion13,

¹¹ vācyopaskārakatvam hy alamkārāņām ātma-bhūtatvam, Jaya-ratha p. 3.

¹² Presumably this work was composed by himself. But Jayaratha does not expressly say so. In the Trivandrum edition, the reading is different. It reads kālidāsādi-prabandheşu (instead of alamkāra-mañjaryām) daršītah. The Alamkāra-mañjarī appears to have dealt particularly with rasa-dhvani, apparently laying stress on śringāra-rasa.

¹³ See above ch. v. p. 171.

naturally covers an extensive field. As all detailed consideration of this topic is omitted in the *Dhvanyāloka* (as coming not properly within the sphere of its theory), here was an opportunity of supplementing the work of his predecessors.

But the point had already been taken up and discussed in his own way by Kuntaka who recognised that the poet's intention need not always be to awaken the Rasa or anything else unexpressed but may be directed simply to producing a certain strikingness of expression in the form of an expressed poetic figure. He analysed poetic expression and found that the elements which went to make up the being of such a figure consisted of a peculiar turn of expression, which produced a certain charm (called vaicitrya or vicchitti-viśesa) and which ultimately depended on the conception of the poet (kavi-pratibhā-nirvartitatva)14. Both these terms are not new, the kavi-pratibhā having been acknowledged as essential in a poetic composition by older theorists, and the saundarya of Vāmana reappearing under the name of vaicitrya or vicchitti. The ukti-vaicitrya is discussed in another connexion by Anandavardhana (p. 243); and Mammata (probably under the influence of Kuntaka) lays down that the alamkara is nothing but vaicitrya itself. Abhinavagupta speaks of endless varieties of upamā-vicchitti (p. 5), and in another passage (p. 8) uses the term as almost synonymous with kāmanīyaka Or cārutva-hetu.

Ruyyaka does not elaborate a doctrine on this point but he accepts Kuntaka's analysis implicitly and applies it to the detailed examination of individual poetic figures, a procedure which is followed by Viśvanātha. Appayya Dīkṣita and Jagannātha. That he derived this idea from Kuntaka is indicated by Jayaratha in a passage in which the commentator, while rejecting on this ground the claim of the yathā-saṃkhya to be counted as a poetic figure, sys: etac ca

vakroktijīvita-kṛtā saprapañcam uktam ity asmābhir nāyastam (p. 149). In the Alaṃkāra-sarvasva Ruyyaka does not define the term vicchitti, but in the commentary on the Vyakti-viveka attributed to him, he says (p. 44): tathā ca śabdār-thayor vicchittir alaṃkāraḥ, vicchittiś ca kavi-pratibhollāsa-rūpatvāt kavi-pratibhollāsasya ānantyād anantatvaṃ bhaja-māno na paricchettuṃ śakyatæ ('Then again, an alaṃkāra consists of the charm or vicchitti of sound and sense; and it is not possible to define vicchitti exactly, inasmuch as it is of infinite variety, being identical with the play of the poetic imagination, which itself is infinite in its scope'), the boundlessness or infinite scope of poetic conception having been already admitted by Ānandavardhana himself (ch. iv). as well as by Kuntaka.

Ruyyaka, however, takes this vicchitti, brought out by the productive imagination of the poet, to be the test of a poetic figure: or, in other words, a form of expression or a mere speech-figure (if the phrase is allowable) becomes a poetic figure when a certain charm is lent to it by the peculiar conception of the poet. Thus, a form of expression involving the logical anumana would not prima facie constitute the figure anumana, unless this special charm is involved in it; or, the doubt involved in the figure samdeha must be brought into being by the imagination of the poet, for it should not be an ordinary doubt but a 'poetic' doubt. Jayaratha makes this doctrine more explicit than his author in many places in his commentary. He lays down repeatedly that a special charm (vicchitti-viśesa) depending on the conception of the poet (kavi-karma or °pratibhā) is to be taken as the essential factor of an Alamkara (pp. 144, 149-50, 183), and all so called figures are to be accepted or rejected accordingly15.

¹⁵ The question has been dealt with in some detail by Jacobi in his Ueber Begriff und Wesen der poetischen Figuren in der indischen Poetik in GN, 1908, and also in the present writer's introduction to Vakrokti-fivita, 2nd ed. 1928, pp. xlvi-lviii.

In later writings this doctrine is admitted as settled beyond question. Appayya Dīkṣita explains it at the beginning of his Citra-mīmāṇṣsā (p. 6), and Jagannātha repeatedly states: alaṃkārāṇāṃ bhaṇiti-viśeṣa-rūpatvam. In addition to the terms bhaṇiti-viśeṣa, vaicitrya and vicchitti, Viśvanātha and Jagannātha use the terms cārutva, hṛdyatva, camatkāritva and saundarya almost synonymously, while the latter attempts to define it (p. 466, 470) more precisely as the poetic imagination with reference to the power of poetic production; or rather, as the charm which is thereby brought into being, upon which the poetic figures distinguish themselves in their special peculiarities.

Ruyyaka's work is also important for its acute analysis of the scope and nature of individual poetic figures, of which nearly eighty independent varieties are dealt with. At first sight one would be inclined to classify him as belonging to the Alamkara school. There is no doubt that Ruyyaka was a great admirer of Udbhata, on whose work his father Tilaka (as Javaratha informs us) wrote a Viveka or Vicara. Ruyyaka himself tells us (and he is borne out by Jayaratha and Samudrabandha)16 that he is a follower of the views of the "ancients" (e. g. cirantana-matānusṛtiḥ, p. 205), by which he means apparently the older Alamkara school of Bhamaha and Udbhata; but of course, he corrects, modifies or expands older authoritative opinions in the light of the progressive study of the subject. Ruyyaka's development of Udbhata's idea of slesa may be taken as a typical instance. The controversy regarding the divisions of slesa and its relation to other figures in cases of combination, started, as Ruyyaka himself and his commentators point out, from Udbhata's time

¹⁶ Jayaratha refers to Ruyyaka's following of cirantana-mata at pp 72, 83, 103, 172 etc., and of Udbhata at pp. 10, 20, 34, 87, 93, 97, 98, 125, 126, 150 etc. Samudrabandha's references are at pp. 4, 7, 10, 11, 14, 21, 74, 82, 103 etc. Ruyyaka's own references to Udbhata's views will be found in numerous places, at pp. 3, 7, 23, 59, 82, 86, 92, 123, 126, 148, 174, 191 etc.

Ruyyaka accepts the division of this figure into śabda-ślesa and artha-ślesa (adding ubhaya-ślesa), and holds that the principle of this distinction consists in the dictum yo'lamkaro yad-āśritah sa tad-alamkārah. He rejects Mammata's view that the distinction is based on the ground that the sabdaslesa is incapable of enduring a change of synonym (parivrttiasaha), while the artha-ślesa is capable of doing so; for Mammata holds that it is not āśrayāśrayi-bhāva (mutual dependence or inherence) but anvaya (connexion) and vyatıreka (contrast) which must be taken as the test for determining whether a figure is of śabda or of artha. uing to Ruyyaka, however, a śabda-ślesa occurs when the expression, being differently split up yields two different meanings. Here the words are really different, as is indicated by a difference of accent as well as by the effort required in pronouncing them. They present the appearance of sameness or coalescence (ślesa), just in the same way as the lacquered wood appears to be one single object, though really lac is put on the wood. The artha-ślesa occurs where the expression is the same and has the same accent and effort, but possesses two meanings, just as two fruits hang down from a single em. The ubhaya-ślesa is the case where both these circumstances exist¹⁷. Rergarding the implication of ślesa in other poetic figures, the question has been raised whether it should be regarded (i) as stronger than and thus dispelling the notion of the accompanying figure, (ii) as being equally powerful and therefore entering into combination with them, or (ii) as being weaker and therefore not prominent where other figures occur18 Udbhata takes the first position, and thinks that where the ślesa is present (e. g. along with upamā) there is only the appearance (pratibhā) of the other figure,

¹⁷ Viśvanātha follows Mammata, but Vidyādhara agrees with Ruyyaka's interpretation in this matter.

¹⁸ Jagannātha, p. 393, sums up the views thus: ayam cālaṃkāraḥ prāyeṇālamkārāntarasya vişayam abhinivisate, tatra kim asya bhādha-katvam syād āhosvit samkīrnatvam utāho bādhyatvam iti.

the real figure being in such a case the *śleşa* (and not *upamā*). Ruyyaka demurs to this view, and agrees with Mammaţa in pointing out that in such cases of conflict the possession of common attributes (*sādharmya*) inherent in *upamā* is alone sufficient to constitute the latter figure; for the unqualified definition of *sādharmya* as community of attributes or circumstances is not exclusive of the verbal sameness conveyed by the accompanying *śleṣa*. The *upamā*, therefore, is predominant and the subordinate *śleṣa* only helps it; for in such cases, the common property is not arrived at without the *śleṣa*, and without the common property there can be no *upamā*. If the two figures are thus found together, one helping the other, we have *saṃkīrṇatva* of *.śleṣa* and *upamā*.

From these and other instances which we need not multiply, the influence of the Alamkara school on Ruyyaka will be obvious: but it will be also obvious that the views of the older school never receive unqualified acceptance from him. His following of ancient opinions, a trait which he shares with Mammata and Visvanātha in their following of Vāmana and the Rasa-writers respectively, should be explained as an earnest attempt on his part to reconcile the views of later theorists with those of the earlier, of which he was a professed admirer. It is this impulse probably which made him take up the Vakroktijīvita-kāra's conception of a poetic figure, and apply it to his own detailed analysis of individual figures, as this topic of Poetics was not sufficiently dealt with in the Dhvanyāloka. It cannot be said19, however, that Ruyyaka was a follower of the Vakroktijīvita-kāra, for Ruyyaka himself declares his own adherence to the Dhvani-theory; and, in spite of his borrowing from Udbhata and Kuntaka, he cannot by any means be directly affiliated with the Alamkara school.

(5)

Vidyādhara and Vidyānātha

To most of the writers who followed in the footsteps of Mammata and Ruyyaka, there was hardly any original work that seemed left or unaccomplished. The details of the new system having already been established, there was apparently no occasion for any creative work, and even the task of critical elaboration had well-nigh run its course. Nor did any of the writers possess the genius of making an entirely new departure. This was also the period of -early Muhammadan incursions, and was marked, as it was to be expected. by a general decadence of all investigations, reflecting a corresponding ebb ir the tide of intellectual, as well as social and political, activity. In the centuries that follow there arose a host of commentators, Mammata alone claiming no less than seventy, who busied themselves in interpreting the already established rules and in adding here and there minor points of detail, not clearly made out by their predecessors. The task of remodelling and presenting the new theory in an easier style was also undertaken, giving birth to works like the Ekāvalī of Vidyādhara and the Pratāpa-rudra-yaso-bhūşaņa of Vidyānātha, the chief merit of which consisted in systematic compilation and arrangement. On the main problems, these treatises and even the later works of Jayadeva and Appayya Dikşita, which carry in particular the process of analysing the poetic figures to its utmost limits, throw little valuable light.

Vidyādhara, for instance, models his text (consisting of Kārikā and Vṛtti) on the Kāvya-prakāśa of Mammaṭa, and in the treatment of poetic figures follows Ruyyaka in the main.²⁰ After characterising the Kāvya as dhvani-pradhāna²¹, and

²⁰ In this he agrees with Viśvanātha, Vidyānātha and others. See his definition of figures like vicitra, vikalpa or ullekha which are passed over by Mammata.

²¹ In the first chapter of his work Vidyādhara follows the *Dhvanyā-loka* very closely, and some of his Kārikās, e. g. i. 6, 13, are mere paraphrases of the Kārikās of the older work.

setting forth its purpose as well as the qualifications necessary for the poet, he devotes the first chapter to the establishment of the dhvani or suggested sense in poetry. In this connexion, he refutes at some length the views of those schools which maintain the non-existence of Dhvani or its inclusion in other processes and draws mostly on the Dhvanyāloka and the Kāvya-prakūśa. The second chapter deals with the three functions of word and sense, viz. abhidhā, lakşanā and vyañjanā, while the third chapter classifies the dhvanikāvya, in which the suggested sense excels the expressed, explaining incidentally the different theories of Rasa, which constitutes the province of one of the eight varieties of the imperceptible process of suggestion (asamlaksya-krama vyangya). The second class of poetry, the gunībhūta-vyangya kāvya, is taken up in the next fourth chapter. The fifth chapter defines the gunas, distinguishing them from the alamkāras, and concluding with the treatment of the rīti, with an incidental attack of older views and general support of Mammata's position. The next chapter is concerned with the dosas, while the last two chapters deal with the poetic figures. the śabdālamkāras and arthālamkāras respectively, adhering in general to the treatment of Ruyyaka. This brief enumeration of the contents of Vidyadhara's work will sufficiently indicate the scope and nature of these subsequent treatises, as well as the fact that they embrace the same topics as are dealt with in the Kāvya-prakāśa, even the different chapters sometimes corresponding, in regard to their subject-matter. to the different ullasas of the latter.

The scope of Vidyānātha's work, written also in the form of Kārikā with Vṛtti, is much wider, and its plan somewhat different, but from the theoretical point of view it is perhaps less interesting. Its nine prakaraṇas cover almost the same ground as the ten paricchedas of Viśvanātha's Sāhitya-darpaṇa. Like Vidyādhara, Vidyānātha follows Mammaṭa in general, but prefers Bhoja in the matter of Guṇas and Ruyyaka in the matter of poetic figures. The author justifies the pro-

duction of his work by stating that although the older writers have already dealt with the different branches of the subject. none of them has described a nayaka or hero in it; but as the greatness of a composition depends on the representation of the merits of the hero described in it, the first prakarana. entitled nāyaka-prakaraņa, deals with the attributes of a hero. as well as of the heroine, and their necessary adjuncts. Then follows the kāvya-prakarana, which describes in the usual way the nature of a Kavya and its constituents, the vrttis and ritis suitable to the development of different sentiments, the śayyā or repose of words in their mutual favourableness, the pāka or maturity of sense, and the divisions of Kāvya. curious that Vidyanatha's definition of poetry (guṇālaṃkārasahitau śabdarthau dosa-varjitau/gadya-padyobhayamayam kāvyam kāvya vido viduļi) follows closely Mammata's known definition which is quoted in a slightly modified form immediately afterwards. He speaks of sabda and artha as the 'body' of poetry, vyangya as the 'soul', the gunas and alamkāras in the usual manner being likened to natural qualities like heroism and to outward ornaments like bracelets respectively. The rītis are described as natural dispositions which lead to the excellence of the soul (ātmotkarṣāvahāh svabhāvāh). After dealing with the three functions of word and sense, he goes on to the consideration of the vyanjanā-vṛtti (pp. 52 f) and mentions (pp. 77 f) in passing 5304 varieties of Dhvani. And yet he defines the excellence, called gambhirya, as dhvanimattā, after Bhoja! He lays down racanāyā upi rasa-vyanjakatvam prasiddham, which leads him to a separate consideration of the suggestion of Rasa. The third chapter, styled the Nāṭaka-prakaraṇa, deals with the subject of Rupaka or dramatic composition, a theme generally omitted by most writers, taking up the Nāţaka as the most important variety and analysing its plot into five samdhis. Although based avowedly on Dhanañjaya's Daśa-rūpaka, this chapter is one of the important later contributions to the subject of Dramaturgy, and a great interest attaches to its inclusion of a model

drama illustrative of all its characteristics and eulogistic of the author's patron Prataparudra. Next comes the rasa-prakarana dealing with the nature and theories of Rasa. The next two chapters are the doşa-prakarana and the guna-prakarana, while the last two chapters are devoted to the topic of śabdālankāra, arthālankāra and miśrālankāra.

It is curious that Vidyanatha follows Bhoja in mentioning as many as twenty-four Gunas. The definitions are almost identical in the two authors. The Gunas are: (i) ślesa, coalescence of words (owing to the imperceptibility of samdhi, when it is not harsh to the ear and when the letters belong to the same sthāna or organ of pronunciation). (ii) prasāda, lucidity arising from carefully selected words which lead to the intended sense at once. (iii) samatā, uniformity of diction (rejected by Mammata as being often a defect). (iv) mādhurya, distinctness of words (prthak-padatva) on account of the absence of samdhi. (v) saukumārya, softness of expression due to the use of soft-sounding letters. (vi) artha-vyakti, clearness of sense due to the completion of a sentence in all its parts, (vii) kānti, gracefulness of diction, explained as follows by the commentator Ratneśvara: apratihata-padair ārambhah samdarbhasyaiva kāntih 'kusumasya dhanur' iti prahatam, 'kausumam' ity aprahatam; 'jalanidhau' iti prahatam, 'adhijalam' ity aprahatam; 'gurutvam' ity prahatam. 'gaurayam' iti aprahatam ityādi.....asti tu tulye'pi vācakatve pudānām kascid ābhyantaro višeso yam adhikrtya kimcid eva prayunjate mahakavayah. na tu sarvam. (viii) audārya, where the sentence is so arranged with formidable letters (vikaţākṣara) or hard vocables (vikaţa, explained as kathina-varna-sanighatanā-rūpa by Jagannātha) that the words proceed as if they were dancing (nrtyadbhir iva padair yad vākya-racanā). (ix) udātta, the use of praiseworthy epithets (ct Agni-purāņa 345, 9); Kumārasvāmin notes that it is the absence of the defect known as anucitartha. (x) ojas. strength due to the presence of compounds. (xi) sauśabdya, elegance in the use of nominal and verbal forms (cf Bhāmaha i. 14-15: Rājašekhara p. 20). (xii) preyas, statement of agree-

able or flattering things (Bhāmaha, Dandin and some other writers regard this as an Alamkara and not a Guna): the commentator notes that this is the absence of the defect parusa (see above p. 14, fn 38). (xiii) auriitya, compactness of structure22. (xiv) samādhi, attribution of the properties of one object to another (an echo of Dandin's samādhi), e.g., attribution of the properties of an inanimate object to an animate object (what Kuntaka would comprehend under upacāravakratā and other writers under the figure rūpaka). (xv) vistara. detailed corroboration of what is said. (xvi) sammitatva, use of the absolutely necessary words, neither more nor less. to convey the intended sense, i.e. balance of sound and sense (arthasya padānām ca tulā-vidhrtatvāt tulyatvena sammitatvam). (xvii) gāmbhīrya, presence of the suggested sense or dhvani (dhvani-mattā). (xviii) saņīksepa, brevity of statement. (xix) sauksmya, minuteness or subtlety of sense. (xx) praudhi. maturity of sense (this comes under pāka detailed below). (xxi) ukti, cleverness of speech. (xxii) rīti, homogeneity of manner (corresponding to Vāmana's samatā), consisting of the completion of a sentence or theme in the manner in which it was (xiii) bhāvika, conduct of a sentence according to its underlying emotion or sentiment (bhāvatah). (xxiv) gati, a pleasing effect produced by long and short vowels (suramyatvam svarārohāvarohayoh, in which svarāroha is explained as dīrghāksara-prāyatva, and svarāvaroha as its reverse)23

22 This is said to be the absence of the defect called visamidia. This defect, mentioned also by Bharata and Bhāmaha, is explained as visaminito virāpo vā yasya saṃdhiḥ, Kumārasvāmin explaining visaṃhitaḥ as vigatā saṃhitā varṇānāṃ paraspara-saṃnikarṣo yatra, and virāpaḥ as simply karṇa-kathoraḥ. The saṃhitā therefore, means close proximity of letters which leads to euphonic, combinations sanctioned by grammar. The fault occurs (a) when there is no saṃdhi (visleṣa) and (b) when the saṃdhi is harsh to the ear (kaṣṭa). Mammaṭa (pp. 331f) adds a third case of its occurrence when the saṃdhi gives rise to the implication of an indecent (aślīla) idea. See Trivedi's note to Pratāparudra pp. 73-75.

23 The Agni-purana, while admitting most of these excellences,

The theory of pāka and śayyā, mentioned by Vidyadhara and Vidyanatha follows from the stress laid on felicity of expression, which depends on poetic genius and which lies at the root of all discussions on style, poetic figure and kindred topics. The word $\dot{s}ayy\bar{a}$ is old, having been used, apparently in this sense, by Banabhatta in one of the introductory verses of his Kādambarī; while the Agni-purānā uses the word mudrā with a similar connotation. Vidyādhara and Vidyānatha develop it further as a special excellence of expression. The sayyā is defined as the repose of words in their mutual favourableness like the repose of the body in a bed, the similitude explaining the etymology of the term. This mutual friendship (maitri) of words is so close that they cannot, as Mallinatha explains, be replaced even by synonyms: a theory of the immutability of words which mutatis mutandis would remind one of Flaubert's half-platonic view, developed by Walter Pater, that each idea has its fixed word-counterpart. The theory of $p\bar{a}ka$, is very closely allied with this. The word pāka, meaning literally 'ripeness', 'maturity' or 'fruition', is as old as Vāmana. He speaks of pāka (i. 2. 21 Vrtti), resulting from the vaidarbhī rīti in a delightful effect on the connoisseur, as "that attaining which the excellence of a word quickens and in which the unreal appears as real". Elsewhere he says (i. 3. 15) that $\dot{s}abda-p\bar{a}ka$ occurs when the words are so carefully chosen that they cannot bear an exchange of synonym. Later theorists elaborate the doctrine as consisting of (1) śabda-pāka, which may be explained, after Vāmana, as maturity of expression due to the perfect fitness of a word and its sense, and (2) artha-paka or depth of sense which is of various kinds brought about by the different tastes of different poetic Rasas. Mangala, according to Rajasekhara, regards pāka only as saušabdya (excellence of words) or tinām supām ca vyutpattih (proficiency in the use of nouns and verbs. cf.

classifies and defines them somewhat differently. See ch. 345, and above p. 204.

Bhāmaha i. 14-15). Vidyādhara admits only what is called artha-pāka above; but he alludes to the other theories which may that pāka consists of pada-vvutpatu (Mangala) or of pada-parivrtti-vaimukhva (Vamana). Vidyānātha calls this last sayyā, and accepts and defines paka as depth of sense. Bhoja would call it praudhi and enumerate it as a śabda-guna.

Rājašekhara's discussion of earlier views on this point (p. 20) is interesting and deserves quotation. "The acarvas ask. 'what is pāka?' Mangala says it is maturity (parināma)'. What again, is maturity? ask the acaryas. Mangala replies: it is the skill in the use of houns and verbs'. Hence it is sausabdya or excellence of language. 'The paka fixedness in the application of words' say the acaryas. It is said [by Vāmana i. 3. 15]: 'The insertion and deletion of words occur so long as there is uncertainty in the mind, when the fixity of words is established, the composition is successful'. So the followers of Vamana say, 'the pāku is aversion of words to alteration by means of synonyms'. Therefore it is said [Vāmana, loc, cit.]: 'The specialists in the propriety of words have called that subdu-paka in which the words abandon the capability of being exchanged (by synonyms)'. But Avantisundari thinks that this want of capability is not pāka. Since the varied expressions of great poets, with regard to one and the same object, all attain maturity, the pāka consists in the composition of word and sense proper to the development of Rasa. So it is said: That is $v\bar{a}kya-p\bar{a}ka$ to me by which the mode of stringing together word and sense, according to guna, alamkāra, rīti and ukti, is relished'. And again. There being the speaker. there being the word, there being the rasa, there is still not that by which the nectar of words flows' Hence the Yāyāvarīyas say: Since the $p\bar{a}ka$, which is capable of being communicated by sabda (word) through its inferrability from its effect, is in a high degree the province of Denotation (ābhidhā), still it is subject to usage of what is established by the sanction of the sahrdaya'."

From this passage it would seem that Rajasekhara admits that the pāka is conveyed chiefly through words, and taken as sausabdya or sabda-vyutpatti, it comes primarily under the province of abhidha; but it finds its scope only in the artha which is established by the taste of the sahrdaya. In this connexion it is proper to note that the term pāka, like the word rasa, has a reference to its etymological meaning of physical taste which has been fancifully likened to that resulting from the ripeness of fruits. As such ripeness of fruits bears different tastes, some theorists carry the analogy into distinguishing and naming pākas after various kinds of fruits. Thus, Vāmana quotes two old verses (under iii. 2. 15) which speak of vrntāka-pāka; while Vidyānātha speaks of two kinds of pāka (1) drāksā-pāka, or the maturity of grapes in which the taste flows both in and out. and (2) nārikela-pāka, the ripeness of cocoa-nut which is rough outside but tasty inside. Bhoja similarly distinguishes between mrdvīkā-pāka and nārikela-pāka; but Ratneśvara in his commentary alludes to various kinds of pāka, named after sahakāra (mango), vārtāka (egg-plant) and nīlakapittha (feronia elephantum). Rājašekhara goes to the length of mentioning nine such cases of pāka named after the following nine fruits (pp. 20-21): picumanda (nimba, azadirachta indica), badara (jujube), mrdvīkā (grapes), vārtāka (egg-plant fruit), tintidī (tamarind), sahakara (mango), kramuka (betel-nut), trapusa (cucumber) and nārikela (cocoa-nut).

CHAPTER VIII

SOME LATER WRITERS OF THE NEW SCHOOL

(1)

Hemacandra and the Vagbhatas

The group of three Jaina writers, Hemacandra and the older and the younger Vāgbhaṭas, may be conveniently mentioned here, but they do not call for any special remark. Hemacandra's Kāvyānuśāsana, written in the form of Sūtra with Vṛtti, and its commentary, called Viveka¹, composed by himself, indicate extensive learning and constitute a compact manual of Poetics in eight chapters; but there is hardly anywhere any striking trait of originality² or even indepen-

- 1 The Sūtra-portion is called Kāvyānuśāsana, the Vṛtti is styled the Alamkāra-cūdā-maṇi, while the brief commentary which explains the Vṛtti may be called Viveka from its mangala-verse.
- 2 Hemacandra's treatment of poetic figures, however, is somewhat peculiar. He speaks of six sabdālamkāras, viz. anuprāsa, yamaka. citra, ilesa, vakrokti and punaruktavad-ābhāsa. The arthālamkāras are much reduced in number and limited to twenty-nine (viz. upamā, utpreksā, rūpaka, nidaršanā, dīpaka, anyokti, paryāyokta, atišayokti, āksepa, virodha, sahokti, samāsokti, jāti, vyāja-stuti, šleša, vyatireka, arthantara-nyasa, sasamdeha, apahnuti, paravetti, anumana, smeti, bhrānti, vişama, sama, samuccaya, parısamkhyā, kāraņamālā and samkara). He includes samsrsti under samkara, and treats ananvaya and upameyopamā as varieties of upamā. The aprastuta-prasamsā similarly goes under anyokti. All figures like rasavat, preyas, ürjasvin and samahita that have a touch of Rasa and Bhava are omitted as being comprehended (so also Mammata thinks) in the class of poetry called gunībhūta-vyangya. Hemacandra does not deal with parikara, yathāsaṃkhya, bhāvika, udātta, āsīḥ and pratyanīka for reasons explained by himself at pp. 292-4. Hemacandra, however, defines some figures somewhat broadly so as to include other recognised figures in them, e. g. his dīpaka would include tulyayogitā, his parāvītti would contain the paryaya and parivetti of Mammata, his nidartana would comprehend Prativastūpamā, drstānta and nidaršanā of other writers.

dent thinking out of the main problems. This work is chiefly a compilation'. Hemacandra not only paraphrases literally most of the standardised definitions, and reproduces almost unhesitatingly the illustrative quotations of Mammata; but his acknowledged and unacknowledged borrowings from the Dhvanyāloka and Locana, from the Abhinava-bhārati. from the Vakroku-jivita, from Rajasekhara's Kāvya-mīmāmsā, as well as from other well known works are indeed numerous. No doubt, Hemacandra adds a chapter on Dramaturgy, chiefly compiled from Bharata and others, but the account of the doctrines of dhvani, rasa, guna, dosa and alamkāra is closely and somewhat uncritically copied from Mammata, supplemented, however, by excerpts, in the commentary, of other views on the subject. In trying to improve upon Mammata's imperfect definition of poetry by substituting sālamkārau ca in the place of analamkṛtī punaḥ kvāpi, he puts himself open to greater technical objection, although he adds the gloss: ca-karo niralamkārayor api sabdārthayoh kvacit kāvyatva-sihāpanārthah.

The older and the younger Vāgbhaṭas, on the other hand, though making considerable use of Mammaṭa's text (the latter especially borrowing from Hemacandra's version too), do not admit dhvani, and are allied in their sympathies with the Pre-dhvani schools. The authority of Daṇḍin, for instance, carries great weight with them; and the younger Vāgbhaṭa admits some of Rudraṭa's peculiar poetic figures. At the same time, the unmistakable influence of the new

3 The eight chapters of Hemacandra's Kāvyānušāsana comprehends the following topics: i. The purpose (proyojana) of poetry, its causes (hetu) viz. pratibhā to which are added vyutpatti and abhyāsa; the definition of poetry; the nature of śabda and artha; the denoted, indicated and suggested meanings. ii. The rasa and its factors. iii. The dosas of pada, vākya, artha and rasa. iv. The gunas, accepted as three after Mammata, and the letters which produce them. v. Six figures of sound. vi. Twenty-nine figures of sense. vii. The nāyaka and nāyikā. viii. Division of poetry into prekṣya and śravya, and their characteristics and subdivisions.

school on them precludes us from affiliating them directly with the older Alamkara and Riti schools. The older Vagbhata defines poetry as:

sādhu-śabdārtha-saṇdarbhaṇ guṇālaṇkāra-bhūşitam/ sphuṭa rīti-rasopetaṇ kāvyam kurvīta kīrtaye//

while the younger Vāgbhata, whose work is written in the sūtra- and vṛtti-form like Hemacandra's, adopts literally the latter's modification of Mammata's definition. The criterion of poetry, according to them, is that it must contain, through its word and sense, the guna, atamkāra, riti and rasa, but these elements are mentioned rather in an eclectic than critical spirit. The older Vagbhața accepts without question the ten Gunas of older writers, but the younger Vāgbhaļa follows Mammata in limiting them to three, with the pointed remark: ti daņģi-vāmana-vāgbhatādi-praņītā daša kāvya guņāļi, vayaņī tu mādhuryaujaļi-prasāda-lakşaņān trīn eva guņān manyāmahe. The younger Vāgbhata speaks of Rasa as the 'soul' of poetry4; but beyond a description, after Hemacandra and others, of the different Rasas, he does not touch upon the theoretical aspect of the question, nor does he indicate the mutual relation of the different elements of poetry with reference to the Rasa. Indeed, both of them do not appear to accept the reconciliation proposed by the Dhvani-theorists; and the younger Vāgbhata specifically includes dhvani, after Bhāmaha and Udbhaṭa, in the figure paryāyokta with dhvanitoktir bhavati. evamādi-bhedair the remark: param grantha-gaurava-bhayād asmābhir nodāhriyate, sa prapañcas tvānandavardhanād avagantavyah (p. 37). The object of these Jaina manuals (though there is nothing specifically Jaina in them) appears to have been the presentation of a popular and easy epitome of the subject, a'laying themselves to no particular school or system, but following

⁴ doşa-muktam guna-yuktam alamkāra-bhūşitam sabdārtha-rūpam uktam kāvya-sarīram, param tat tvaprāni-sarīram iva nirātmakam na pratibhāsate, atah kāvyasya prāna-bhūtam rasam āha, ch. v, p. 53).

the traditional notions in a spirit of eclecticism, without critically systematising them in the light of a central theory. In this respect, they bear a close resemblance to the alamkārasection in the Agni-purāṇa and the Sarasvutī-kaṇṭhābhāraṇa of Bhoja, whose definition of poetry is forcibly recalled by that of the older Vāgbhaṭa quoted above.

The topics dealt with in the five paricchedas of the Vāgbhajālamkāra are as follow: (i) The definition of Kāvya; pratibhā as the source of Kāvya, aided by vyutpatti and abhyāsa; the circumstances favourable to poetry and the conventions observed by poets. (ii) The language of poetry (Sanskrit, Prakrit, Apabhramsa and Bhūta-bhāṣā); forms of poetry (metrical chandonibaddha and non-metrical); divisions into padya (verse), gadya (prose) and miśra (mixed verse and prose); eight dosas of pada and of vākya respectively, and the dosas of artha. (iii) The ten gunas. (iv) Four poetic figures of sound, viz, citra, vakrokti, anuprāsa and yamaka, and thirty-five figures of sense; the two ritis (vaidarbhī and gaudīyā). (v) Nine rasas; kinds of nāyaka and nāyikā and kindred topics. The Kāvyānuśāsana of the younger Vāgbhața is, unlike the Vāgbhaţālamkāra (which is written in the metrical form, generally in the anustubh with only one prose passage at iii. 14), composed in the Sutra- and Vṛtti-style of Hemacandra's Kāvyānuśāsana. It is also divided into five chapters with topics as follow: (i) The prayojana. and the hetu (pratibhā aided by vyutpatti and abhyāsa) of Kāvya; its division into padya, gadya and miśra; the classification of poetical composition into mahākāvya, ākhvāvikā, kathā, campū and rūpaka. (ii) Sixteen dosas of pada, fourteen of vakya, and fourteen of artha; the ten gunas of Vāmana and Dandin reduced to three, viz. mādhurya. ojas and prasada; three ritis, viz. vaidarbhi, gaudiya and pancali. (ii) Sixty-three figures of sense, in which some of Rudrata's old figures reappear. (iv) Six figures of sound, viz. citra, ślesa, anuprāsa, vakrokti, yamaka and punaruktavad-ābhāsa. (v) Nine rasas; the topic of nayaka-nayika; and the dosas of rasa.

. (2)

Jayadeva, Appayya and Jagannātha

We have now practically closed our survey of the principal Post-dhyani writers who deserve mention and treatment. The school of kavi-śiksā and the erotic rasa-writers stand apart in many respects, and we propose to deal with them separately in the following chapters. But the above account of the Postdhvani writers must not be supposed to exhaust the extraordinary wealth of scholastic activity of this period. The commentators and textbook-writers continued to multiply. and a glance at their names given in our preceding volumes will show the extent to which their activity was carried; but hardly any of these later works, except perhaps Jagannatha's Rasa-gangādhara, with an account of which we shall close our survey, deserves separate or detailed mention. Even Keśava Miśra's Alamkāra-śekhara, or Acyuta Rāya's more modern Sāhitya-sāra⁶, convenient and well-written compendiums as they are, and standing as they do much above the average, add hardly anything fresh to our knowledge,

Keśava Miśra draws largely upon Mammata and the younger Vāgbhata (besides older writers). He declares that his work is based upon the Kārikās of one alamkāra-vidyā-sūtrakāra bhagavān śauddhodani (see vol. i, pp. 220f); but it does not present any theory nor set up any new system. There are, however, certain opinions which are peculiar to the work, the chief of which is that it sets up Rasa as the essence of poetry. The work is divided into eight ratnas, consisting of twenty-two marīcis. The first ratna defines Kāvya as rasādimat vākya, and discusses pratibhā etc. as its sources. After an enunciation of three Rītis, vaidarbhī, gaudī and māgadhī (which are defined with reference to the em-

⁵ See vol. i, ch. x, pp. 262-315, Minor Writers. For commentators, see Bibliography given under each writer.

⁶ For a summary of the contents of this work, see vol. i, p. 264.

ployment of compounds), along with ukti (4 kinds) and mudrā (4 kinds), it goes on to discuss the three usual Vṛttis, viz. śakti (=abhidhā), lakṣaṇā and vyañjanā. Then comes the dosa-ratna, in which are detailed two series of eight faults each of word and sense, and twelve defects of sentences. The next third section, called guna-ratna, deals with five excellences of sabda (viz. samksiptatva, udāttatva, prasāda, ukti and samādhi), and four excellences of sense (viz. bhāvikatva, suśabdatva, paryāyokta and sudharmitā). This is followed by a discussion of the cases where some of the above Dosas may sometimes become Gunas. The influence of Bhoja's opinions on this part of the work is obvious. Then comes the alamkāra-ratna, where mention is made of eight figures of sounds (citra, vakrokti, anuprāsa, gūdha, ślesa, prahelikā, praśnottara and yamaka) and only fourteen figures of sense (upamā, rūpaka, utpreksā, samāsokti, apahnuti, samāhīta, svabhāva, virodha, sāra, dīpaka, sahokti, anyadeśatva= asamgati of Mammata, višesokti, and vibhāvanā). This is followed by a curious chapter, entitled varnaka-ratna, in which are detailed the upamānas appropriate for describing a damsel, her complexion, hair, forehead, eyebrows etc. It goes on to give practical hints as to how poets should describe the physical characteristics of the hero, mentions words which convey the idea of similarity, details the conventional usages of poets (kavi-samaya), as well as the topics for description (such as the king, the queen, a town, a city, a river etc.) and the way of describing them, the colours of various objects in nature, words that convey numerals from one to one thousand. certain tricks of words such as bhāsā-sama (where a verse reads the same in Sanskrit as in Prakrit), samasyā-pūrana, the nine Rasas, the kinds of hero and heroine, the different Bhāvas, the Dosas of Rasa, and lastly, the arrangement of letters favourable to each Rasa.

Jayadeva's Candrāloka' has been a deservedly popular

⁷ See vol. i, p. 199 for a résumé of its contents.

manual, but in spite of its clearness and brevity of exposition and aptness of its illustrations, it is nothing more than a convenient epitome, its most remarkable feature being its detailed treatment of poetic figures, which occupy nearly half its bulk.

The Candraloka deals with ten gunas and one hundred alamkāras. The third chapter, curiously enough, is devoted to laksanas, which are not mentioned by later writers except in connexion with Dramaturgy (as by Visvanātha). Instead of Bharata's thirty-six lukşanas (ch. xvi 6-39; see above pp. 3-5), Jayadeva defines and illustrates only ten, viz. the economical combination of letters to convey a striking meaning (aksarasamhati), the prohibition of a fault by the indication of an excellence (śobhā), the deliberation resulting in a negation of what is said (abhimāna), the determination of a proposition by a rejection of other possible alternatives (hetu), the disregard of well established causes (pratisedha), the interpretation of a name both as true and false (nirukta), false attribution where both the major and middle terms of a proposition are absent (mithyādhyavasāya), substantiation of the excellence of an object by emphasising its well-matched resemblance to a well known object (siddhi), establishment of a particular attribute through the drift of two different meanings (yukti), and the accomplishment of a purpose through some action or occurrence (phala). Visvanātha, however, adds thirty-three dramatic embellishments (natyālamkāras) to his laksanas, which are enumerated after Bharata as thirty-six in number, but which do not correspond exactly to Bharata's lakşanas, as some of the latter fall also under Viśvanātha's nāţyālamkāras. The two classes cannot indeed be distinguished on any conceivable theory; and though Viśvanātha adopts the conventional enumeration, he remarks in the end: eşām ca lakşaṇānām nāṭyālamkārāṇām ekarūpatve pi bhedena vyapadeśah gaddalikā-pravāheņa.

Thus, we find included under lakşanas the combination of Gunas with Alamkāras; the economical grouping of letters to produce a charming import; the use of double

entendre for the purpose of conveying a less known import along with one more well known; the use of analogy and example; the brief citation of a reason for the intended meaning; the expression of doubt in the case of an object whose nature is not known; the surmise from a matter coincident with the course of nature; the fitting of expression to the sense; the citation of admitted facts to refute inadmissible views; the supposition of a non-existent object or fact from resemblance; the inference of an object from some of its peculiarities; the deduction by reasoning of a fact which is not capable of sense-perception; the description of an object under the similitude of time and place; the statement of agreeable views in accordance with the Sastras; the indication of acts contrary to one's qualities; the attribution to an object of qualities in excess of its ordinary qualities; the discrimination of a particular meaning out of other well known meanings by an allusion to the literal sense; the repetition of a proposition already established. the mention of various objects in eulogy of the intended object; the unconscious expression, under the influence of passion, of the contrary of what one means; the alteration of a conclusion through doubt; the compliance with other people's views by words or acts: the persuasion by means of affectionate words: the statement in succession of several means to attain a desired object; the suggestion and strengthening of one view by a different view; the reproach; the respectful enquiry; the employment of names of well known persons or things in eulogy of the person or thing under description; the mistaken resemblance of apparently similar things causing resentment; the offer of oneself in the service of another: the flattering statement; the employment of a comparison to convey a sense which is not directly desired; the indirect expression of desire; the veiled compliment; and the expression of gratitude in pleasing terms.

The nātyālamkāras are the benediction, the lamentation, the deception, the unforgiving attitude, the arrogant ex-

pression, the expression of a resolution or of an excellent purpose, the raillery, the desire for a charming object, the agitation due to reproach, the repentance for missing an object through folly, the use of an argument, the longing for an object, the request, the commencement of an undesirable act, the mentioning of a purpose, the provocation, the reproach, the observance of the Sastras, the covert rebuke administered by citing a common opinion, the narration, the prayer, the apology, the reminding of a duty neglected, the recounting of previous history, the determination of an act by reasoning, the ecstacy and the instruction.

It will be seen that the division is not only overlapping, but both the laksanas and the nāţyālaṃkāras refer largely to modes of exposition, to the use of what other writers would regard as specific figures or excellences of diction, or they may sometimes appertain to the feelings and emotions which come within the sphere of Rasa and Bhāva. This fact is recognised very early by Daṇḍin who includes lakṣaṇas under alaṃkāras in the wider sense. Dhanañjaya does the same, but he recognises also that some of them come under Rasa and Bhāva. Viśvanātha, therefore, includes them under the guṇa, alaṃkāra, bhāva and saṃdhi, but deals with them only in connexion with the drama. There is practically no need for them in later Poetics from which they ultimately disappear, their function having been assigned to other recognised elements of poetry.

Appayya Dīkṣita's three well known manuals one of which is directly based on Jayadeva's work, and Viśveśvara's Alaṃkāra-kaustubha are indeed noteworthy for their elaborate treatment of poetic figures and have merits of their own, but they are in reality nothing more than elementary text-books, excellent résumés which methodically register

⁸ See vol. i, pp. 223-25.

⁹ See vol. i, p. 303. The work, as its name implies, deals entirely with poetic figures in an elaborate way. The number of independent figures dealt with is about 76.

previous speculations on the subject. There is such a general sameness of characteristics, such a monotony of treatment, as well as repetition of conventional topics in conventional phraseology, that it is not worth while to linger over the activity of these lesser writers. The work of the great Kashmirian writers was over, and although Bengal and the Deccan had come into prominence as fields of later activity, the age of really original or thoughtful writers was long gone by. It was succeeded by an age of commentators, interpreters and critics (some of them were very able and painstaking) as long as there was the need of critical elaboration, of understanding and explaining a great author. But in course of time, even this became superfluous, and there was nothing to be done but the writing of smaller and simpler manuals adapted to general comprehension. The declining age of most of the schools witnessed a host of such manuals and manuals of manuals; but this was the period when the declining age of the Post-dhvani school, as represented by Mammata, went through the same process. Even this was not enough. Out of the debris of these schools there grew up a spirit of eclecticism, of which we have already an early indication in the works of Bhoja and the Vāgbhaṭas after the decline of the older Rasa, Alamkara and Rīti schools; and we meet with hand-books which depend upon no system but which are apparently written for the enlightenment of lay understanding. The different systems of Sanskrit Poetics may now be supposed to have well-nigh run their course and attained their natural termination.

(3)

Jagannātha

Jagannātha's Rasa-gangādhara is the last remarkable work on Poetics. We do not, however, find in it a complete presentation of the subject, as the available text forms about two-fifths of what the work was originally designed to be by

its author and is thus extant only in an unfortunately incomplete shape. Nearly three-fourths of this, again, and the whole of his Citra-mīmāmsā-khandana are taken up with the discussion and illustration of poetic figures, a topic which, as here set forth, forms indeed one of the most exhaustive and noteworthy presentation of later times, but is of little theoretical interest from the standpoint of general Poetics. Jagannātha's style is erudite and frightens the student by its involved language, its subtle reasoning and its unsparing criticism of earlier writers. The most criticised authors in this respect are Ruyyaka, his commentator Jayaratha and his follower Appayya Diksita. But in spite of this tendency towards controversy, which is combined with an aptitude for hair-splitting refinements, Jagannātha's work displays an acute and independent treatment, or at least an attempt at a rethinking of the old problems. He shows himself conversant with the poetic theories of older writers, which he does not ignore but which he endeavours to harmonise with the new currents of thought. Along with some other important writers of the new school, Jagannātha marks a reaction in this respect; and the school of Mammata and Ruyvaka does not receive from him unqualified homage.

Jagannātha defines poetry as a word or linguistic composition which brings a charming idea into expression (ramaṇīyārtha·pratipādakaḥ śabdaḥ): a definition which reminds us of Daṇḍin's well known description of kāvya-śarīra as iṣṭārtha-vyavacchinnā padāvalī, but which is further explained in this way. The charmingness belongs to an idea which causes unworldly or disinterested pleasure: This quality of disinterestedness is an essential characteristic, which is a fact of internal experience and which is an attribute of pleasure, being synonymous with camatkāra or strikingness. The cause of this pleasure is a conception or a species of representation, consisting of continued contemplation of something characterised by the pleasure itself. Thus, there is no disinterestedness in the pleasure conveyed by the ap-

prehension of the sense of a sentence like 'a son is born to you' or 'I shall give you money'; in such a sentence, therefore, there is no poetry. Hence poetry consists of words which express an idea that becomes the object of contemplation causing such pleasure¹⁰.

The beautiful (ramanīyatā) in poetry, therefore, is that which gives us disinterested or impersonal pleasure. This pleasure is specifically different from that which one finds in the actually pleasing, and depends upon taste formed by continued contemplation of beautiful objects. It will be noticed that this definition not only gives us a remarkable analysis of the beautiful but includes in its generality and comprehensiveness all the elements of poetry recognised by previous theorists, without specifically naming them. We have already noted that the poetic sentiment or Rasa, excited in the reader's mind, is peculiar in its nature; it is, no doubt, a fact of one's own consciousness but it is essentially universal and impersonal in character, being common to all trained readers and possessing no significance to their personal relations or interests. A distinction is made between a natural emotion and a poetic sentiment; the former is individual and immediately personal and therefore may be pleasurable or painful, but the latter is generic and disinterested and marked by impersonal joy. The poetic sentiment in this sense is supernormal (alaukika), and those things which cause disgust. fear or sorrow in ordinary life and those normal emotions which are far from pleasant in actual experience, being conveyed in poetry, become ideal and universal, and bring about this supernormal pleasure which is not to be compared

¹⁰ ramaņīyatā ca lokottarāhlāda-janaka-jñāna-gocaratā; lokottaram cāhlāda-gatas camatkāratvāpara-paryāyo'nubhava-sākṣiko jātiviseṣaḥ; kāraṇam ca tad-avacchinne bhāvanā-viseṣaḥ punaḥ punar anusamdhānātmā; putras te jātaḥ, dhanam te dāsyāmīti vākyārthadhī-janyasyāhlādasya na lokottaratvam, ato na tasmin vākye kāvyatvaprasaktiḥ. Itham ca camatkāra-januka-bhāvanā-viṣayārtha-pratipādakatabdatvam. Cf Jacobi in Internat. Wochenschrift, 1910, ix. 821.

to the very mixed pleasure experienced in ordinary life. This pleasure, dissociated from all personal interests, is the essence of the mental condition involved in the enjoyment of Rasa; it is also the essence of all poetry, as conceived by Jagannātha.

In the same way, the definition includes the concept of the suggested sense (dhvani), and Jagannātha proceeds to divide poetry on this basis into four (viz. uttamottama. uttama, madhyama and adhama) classes, corresponding to the three classes recognised by his predecessors since the Dhvanikāra's time. The first occurs where the, sound and sense, subordinating themselves, suggest another charming sense; it corresponds to the principal dhvani-kāvya of the Dhvanikāra. The second and third classes, the gunībhūtavyangya and citra, mentioned by the Dhvanikāra, are split up¹¹ into three cases, viz. (1) where the suggested sense, though not principal, is yet the cause of special charm, (ii) where the charm of the expressed sense is predicated equally with the charm of the suggested, and (iii) where the charm of sound, being embellished by the charm of sense, is principal. This lowest class of poetry, corresponding to the śabda-citra and artha-citra of Mammata (a distinction which is rejected by Jagannātha), apparently comprehends those cases where the artha-camatkṛti is swallowed up or strengthened by śabdacamatkṛti. Jagannātha adds that although it is possible to count a still lower fifth class of poetry. in which the charm of sound is altogether devoid of all charm of sense (e.g. cases of conundrums like the padma-bandha) and which is allowed by the practice of some poets, yet in view of the definition of poetry already given, as consisting of words expressing a charming sense, these instances have to be excluded or ignored.

¹¹ The object of this splitting up is to dispense with the necessity of minutely subdividing the various cases of the guṇībhūta-vyangya kāvya and also to include generally all poetry which is alaṃkāra-pradhāna.

After this classification, Jagannatha follows the conventional way of dividing Dhvani, infinite aspects as it may present (usamkhya-bheda), into two broad groups, based on Denotation (abhidhā-mūla) and Indication (laksaņāmūla) respectively. The former has a threefold aspect, according as it is a suggestion of rasa, alamkāra or vastu, while recognition is given to the two cases of the latter, viz., (i) where the expressed meaning passes over to another sense (arthantara-samkramita-vac)a) and (ii) where the expressed sense is made to disappear entirely (atyanta-tiraskṛta-vācya). This brings our author topically to a detailed consideration of Rasa-dhvani which is characterised as parama-ramanīya. and an elaborate discussion of the nature and theory of Rasa and Bhava and its constituent elements. He speaks in this connexion of bhava dhvani (pp. 74-98) and takes into consideration different phases of Rasa and Bhava, such as rasabhāsa (p. 99), bhāva-sūnti (p. 102). bhāvotpatti, bhāva-samdhi and bhāva-śabalatā (p. 103f)12. The discussion of the Gunas come in this context, inasmuch as they are related to the Rasa. Jagannātha enumerates and discusses the ten śabdaand artha-gunas of Vamana and other older writers; but he appears to accept only three Gunas after Mammata, viz. mādhurya, ojas and prasāda, classifying them on the basis of their respective effects on the reader's mind, viz. druti (melting), dipti (brilliance, i. e. expansion) and vikāsa (pervasion). Jagannātha remarks in this connexion: guņānām caişām druti-dīpti-vikāsākhyās tisras citta-vrttayah kramena prayojyuh, tat-tad-guna-viśista-rasa-carvanā-janyā iti yāvat, making it clear that the justification of this classification consists in the divergent nature of the mental activity involved in the relish of Rasa. He does not agree, however. with Mammata in the latter's statement that when we speak of a composition as madhura we use the word in a secondary

¹² These topics are also dealt with by Mammaja, Viśvanātha and others.

sense (as when we say "the appearance of this man is brave"), inasmuch as the Guṇas being the properties of Rasa, we apply to the body' what appertains to the soul of poetry by an extended use of the term. Jagannātha maintains that when we say the sentiment of love (śṛṅgāra) is madhura in a particular case, we mean to imply its influence, such as druti etc. on the mind, and this must be taken to refer not only to Rasa but also to śabda and artha and the composition in general (śabdārtha-rasa-racanā-gatam eva grāhyam).

The next chapter proceeds to discuss other varieties of suggestion, including suggestion based on laksanā. which is dealt with in detail. It then takes up the poetic figures (to the number of about 70), to which the rest of the work, breaking off in the middle of the figure uttara, is devoted. The poetic figure or Alamkara comes in as the source of the charm or ramaniyata essential in the principal suggested element of poetry already defined (prag-abhihita-lakşanasya kāvyātmano vyangyasya ramanīyatā-prayojakā alam-The aesthetic pleasure (camatkāra kārāh, p. 156). lokottaratva) into which this ramanīyatā resolves itself is an essential element in the poetic figure; Jagannātha thus harmonises his own conception of poetry with Ruyyaka's theory of the alamkāra (which he accepts and elaborates) as involving this camatkāra (also called hrdyatva, cārutva, saundarya, or denoted by the technical terms vaicitrya. vicchitti-visesa or bhaniti-prakāra) imparted by the conception of the poet (kavi-pratibhā). Kuntaka, from whom Ruyyaka appears to have derived his analysis, laid down that in every poetical production the activity of the poet, which consists in an act of the productive imagination (pratibhā), is the principal point, and it should result in poetic expression. Jagannātha asserts that the pratibhā alone is the source of poetry and therefore of poetic expression, and as such it fixes the nature of the alamkara. The special charm (vicchittiviśesa), which is thus imparted to poetic figure by the imagination of the poet, is taken (pp. 466, 470) as the basis upon which the poetic figures distinguish themselves in their special peculiarities, and is explained as an act of imagination on the part of the poet in so far as it is produced in the poem, or as that aesthetic pleasure¹³ which is thereby brought into being. As to how this vicchitti is determined, Jagannātha settles the question by resting it not only upon established usage (sampradāya) but also upon one's own internal experience (anubhava). On this fundamental principle, the various figures are minutely defined, differentiated, illustrated and classified; and this portion of Jagannātha's work, in spite of its subtlety and polemic attitude, is one of the most acute, though unfortunately uncompleted, treatment of the subject.¹⁴

- 13 This translation of the term camatkāra is justified by Jagannātha's own definition of poetry.
- 14 For an elaborate account of Jagannātha as a literary critic see V. A. Ramaswami Sastri, Jagannātha Paņķita (Annamalai Univ. Skt. Series 1942), pp. 78f (chs. iv-vi).

CHAPTER IX

LATER WRITERS ON RASA

(1)

The doctrine of Rasa, which is advocated, if not first enunciated, by Abhinavagupta, is finally adopted by almost all writers on general Poetics who accept rasa-dhvani as an important element of poetry. With the exception of Visvanātha and Kesava Misra, they do not indeed go so far as to declare expressly with Abhinavagupta that Rasa alone is the essence of poetry, but they accept in reality the suggested sense in the form of Rasa as essentially the main element. The Rasa is viewed as a pleasant sentiment belonging to the reader whose dormant emotions, derived from experience or inherited instincts. are evoked by the reading of poems into an ideal and impersonalised form of joy; an appreciation or enjoyment, consisting of a pleasant mental condition in which the reader identifies himself with the feelings of the hero and experiences them in a generic form, the fulness of the enjoyment depending upon the nature and experience of the particular reader. The sentiment thus evoked is essentially universal in character, and the aesthetic pleasure resulting from it is not individual (even though enjoyed as an intimately personal feeling), but generic and disinterested, being such as would be common to all trained readers (samastabhāvaka-svasamvedya). It is, therefore, described as something supernormal (alaukika) and invariably pleasant, not to be compared to the normal pleasures of life which have always a reference to one's personal relations or interests, and which may be pleasant or painful. Things, which would be called causes of an emotion in the normal sense and which may produce disgust, horror or pity in real life, awaken these feelings indeed in poetry and drama, but convey them in such an ideal and generic form that these emotions, which

are far from pleasant in ordinary life, are converted into an impersonal joy, which is ineffable and indivisible. One may be moved by disgust, horror or pity and shed real tears; but the underlying sentiment is always one of exquisite joy, which must be distinguished from an ordinary feeling.

This is the general position of all later theorists with regard to the nature and function of Rasa in poetry. Dhanañjaya, for instance, gives us the same process of transformation of an ordinary emotion, dominant in a composition, into a poetic sentiment, as formally laid down by Bharata and interpreted by Abhinavagupta; and in this he is practically in agreement with Mammata, Vidyadhara Viśvanātha and others. The dominant emotion (sthāyi-bhāva), he says, becomes a sentiment (rasa) when it is brought into a relishable condition through the co-operation of the excitants, the ensuants and the accessories (including the sāttvika bhāvas). This statement is further amplified by the assertion that the enjoyer of Rasa (rasika) is the audience (sāmājika) on whose capacity of enjoyment it depends, and that the dominant feeling becomes a sentiment when it is so enjoyed. The Rasa, being a mental state, a subjective experience of the reader, in which enjoyment (āsvāda. carvanā, rasanā or bhoga) is essential and in which the enjoyer and the object of enjoyment become identical, the reader receives the represented feeling into his own soul and thereby enjoys it². The locus of the Rasa is not in the

¹ But the Nātya-darpaṇa, as noted above (p. 132 fn), as well as Bhoja (sukha-duḥkhāvasthā-rūpa), believes that Rasa is sukha-duḥkhātmaka. The Rasa-kalıkā (vol. i, p. 318) also holds this view. See the elaborate arguments set forth in Nātya-darpaṇa (ed. GOS, p. 159) in support of this view. Sıddhicandra (Kāvyaprakāša-khaṇḍana pp 16-21) refers to this theory of the "Navyas" that all Rasas are not pleasurable, but some distinctly painful. They accordingly admit the four pleasurable Rasas, viz. Śṛṅgāra, Vīra, Hāsya and Adbhuta only, and not those which involve pain, viz. Karuṇa, Raudra, Bībhatsa and Bhayānaka. See the question discussed by V. Raghavan, Number of Rasas, ch. viii.

² Cf. Jacobi in GgA, 1913, pp. 308f.

represented hero who belongs to the past; nor is it in the poem itself, the task of which is merely to exhibit the excitants etc. by which the dominant emotion is brought into expression and the Rasa, on its part, becomes revealed to the reader. Nor does the Rasa consist of the reader's mere apprehension (pratīti) of the emotions exhibited in the poem or enacted by the actor; for the reader would then apprehend not the Rasa but a feeling varying in different individuals, just as in real life the spectacle of a pair of lovers in union gives different spectators who witness it the varying emotions, according to their individual nature, of shame, envy, desire or aversion3. The vibhavas etc., therefore, bring the sthayibhāva to the enjoyment of the rasika, the aesthetically receptive reader or spectator, and thereby convert it into rasa: but they must be generalised and have no specific relation to a particular individual (parityakta-viśesa) Thus, the vibhāva Sītā. Dhanika explains, must refer to woman in general, and not to the particular individual who was the daughter of Janaka. Hence things, which are the exciting, ensuing or accessory circumstances in ordinary life, act as vibhāvas etc. in poetry, and generalise the dominant feeling into Rasa. The spectator, say, of the deeds of Arjuna on the stage may be compared, therefore, to the child who, in playing with clay elephants, experiences the sensation of its own energy as pleasant. The enjoyment in the spectator's mind is a manifestation of that joy which is innate as the blissful nature of self, a circumstance which gives us the frequent comparison of rasāsvāda with brahmāsvāda.

The mental activity involved in this enjoyment has got four aspects taken in connexion with the four primary sentiments of the erotic (sṛṅgāra), the heroic (vīru). the

³ These circumstances, Dhanika thinks. disprove the vyangyatva of Rasa. It seems that Dhanika does not accept the vyangya-vyanjaka relation of Rasa to Poetry, but holds some views similar to the bhāvya-bhāvaka theory of Bhatta Nāyaka (ed. Parab, 1917, p. 96).

horrible (bībhatsa) and the furious (raudra) admitted by Bharata⁴, and consists respectively of the conditions of unfolding (vikāsa), expansion (vistāra), agitation (ksobha) and distraction (viksepa). We have seen that Bhatta Navaka (along with Abhinavagupta) speaks of the bhoga (or āsvāda) of Rasa as involving only three mental conditions, named vikāsa (pervasion), vistāra (expansion) and druti (melting), which later theorists have taken as the basis and justification of the three Gunas of prasada, ojas and madhurya respectively. With regard to the ninth Rasa, the quietistic, which is not mentioned by Bharata but which is acknowledged by some theorists, Dhananjaya forbids its delineation in the drama (iv. 35); for the sentiment of absolute peace is in its own nature undefinable, and consists of four states mentioned by philosophers, viz. maitrī, karunā, muditā and upeksā, which are not realisable by the Sahrdaya. If it exists at all as Rasa, it must comprehend the fourfold mental activity enunciated above, as corresponding to the fourfold states recognised by philosophers in sama⁶.

It is not necessary in this connexion to take up in detail the views of Mammata, Vidyādhara and other writers, for it would be repeating substantially what has already been said regarding the final doctrine of Rasa. Viśvanātha is the only important writer, among later theorists, who boldly accepts Abhinavagupta's extreme view that the rasa-dhvani alone is the essence of poetry and builds up a system of Poetics on its basis.

- 4 See above p. 23. The fourfold division is probably adopted as an ostensible rationale for the doctrine of four primary and four secondary Rasas recognised by Bharata.
 - 5 E. g. Yoga-sūtra i. 33.
- 6 na ca tathābhūtasya śānta-rasasya sahīdayāh svādayitārah santi, atha tad-upāyabhūto muditā-maitrī-karuņopekṣādi-lakṣaṇas tasya ca vikāsa-vistāra-ksobha-vikṣepa-rūpataiveti.
- 7 Bhānudatta, who substantially follows the doctrine of Rasa detailed here, is however singular in his classification of some aspects of Rasa.

Following up his own definition of poetry as "a sentence of which the soul is the Rasa", Viśvanātha gives us an elaborate analysis of Rasa in almost all its aspects. He sums up at the outset the characteristics of Rasa in two verses thus. "The Rasa, arising from an exaltation of the quality of sattva or goodness, indivisible, self-manifested, made up of joy and thought in their identity, free from the contact of aught else perceived, akin to the realisation of Brahma, and having for its essence supernormal wonder (camatkāra), is enjoyed by those competent in its inseparableness (as. an object of knowledge) from the knowledge of itself". He explains camatkāra as consisting of an expansion of the mind and as synonymous with vismaya. In this connexion, Viśvanātha quotes with approval an opinion of his ancestor Nārāyaņa who put a premium on the sentiment of the marvellous (adbhuta rasa) and maintained that it was essential in all Rasas. It is also explained clearly that the Rasa is identical with the enjoyment of itself, or, in other words, there is no distinction between the object and the operation in the apprehension of Rasa; so that when we say 'the Rasa is enjoyed', we only use a figurative expression. It follows from this that the enjoyment of Rasa is different in its nature from the ordinary processes of knowledge.

Visvanātha insists very strongly on the necessity of vāsanā

He speaks of Rasa as laukika and alaukika, subdividing the latter into svāpnika (enjoyed in a dream), mānorathika (fanciful like a castle in the air) and aupanāyika (as depicted in poetry). He again gives us (Rasa-tarai. ch. viii, p. 65, ed. Regnaud) a three-fold arrangement of Rasa with reference to its manner of manifestation: (1) abhimukha, when it is manifested by means of the bhāva, vibhāva and anubhāva. (ii) vimukha, when these elements are not directly expressed; so called because it is comprehensible with difficulty. (iii) paramukha, which has again two aspects according as it is (a) alamkāra-makha, i. e. where the alamkāra is principal and the rasa is secondary. This includes probably the cases of figures like rasavai, which are included in guņī-bhūta-vyangya kāvya by the Dhvani-theorists, and (b) bhāva-mukha where the bhāva is in the same way principal.

in the spectator, which consists of experience (idaniment) or instincts acquired from previous births (praktant). If one is not endowed with these germs of the capacity of appreciation, one may develop them by study of poetry and experience of life. In the case of the grammarian, the philosopher or one well-versed in the sacred lore, these susceptibilities are deadened. If it is sometimes found that an eager student of poetry is still deficient in the capacity of relishing Rasa, we must assume that it is the result of his accumulated demerit of a previous birth. Thus, Viśvanätha is anxious to show that experience and cultivation of the power of imagination are essential in one who seeks to enjoy Rasa.

Viśvanātha also insists that the vibhāvas etc. as well as the dominant feeling (sthāyi-bhāva) must be felt as generic or impersonalised. The reader must not take the feeling as his own individual emotion: for it would then remain as his feeling (and never become Rasa) and would sometimes (e.g. in the case of the pathetic sentiment) cause pain, and not joy. Nor should the feeling be taken as pertaining solely to the hero; for then it can not, as the feeling of another person. affect the reader and become Rasa. It is necessary, therefore, that the excitants etc. as well as the dominant feeling, should be generalised by a generic function (sādhāraṇī kṛti) inherent in themselves, which corresponds to the generic power (bhāvakatva) postulated for poetry by Bhatta Nāyaka. This universalisation of the factors and the feelings enables the reader to identify himself with the personages depicted; and this conceit of community removes all difficulty about accepting extraordinary episodes of exalted personages who may be superior in virtue or prowess to the average reader. The excitants etc. are indeed normally called causes, but in reality the Rasa is not an effect in the ordinary sense; for in the case of Rasa there is the simultaneous presence of itself and its excitants, which is not true of an ordinary cause and effect. It is also pointed out that all the factors (vibhavas etc.) need not be present at once, for the presence of one would revive

the others by association of ideas. In other words, what might seem wanting in the utterance of poetry is supplied, from the suggestive character of poetry itself, by force of association of ideas. It also follows from the character of Rasa described above that it is not necessarily found in the actor, who in assuming the rôle of the hero performs his part only mechanically by rule and rote; he ranks as a spectator (and therefore as a recipient of Rasa) in so far as he is himself a man of taste and actually experiences the feelings he enacts.⁸

(2)

In spite of the unquestioned dominance of the Dhvani School, which no doubt recognised the importance of Rasa but regarded it as one of the phases of the unexpressed only, one class of writers, who still adhered to Rasa as the only element worth considering in poetry, continued to devote exclusive attention to it and built up a system, so to say, on the basis of the Rasa alone. Of all the Rasas, however, as spingāra (or love) forms the absorbing theme of Sanskrit poetry and drama in general, and as this particular poetic sentiment has an almost universal appeal, these writers naturally work out this important Rasa in all its phases; and we have in consequence a series of erotico-rhetorical treatises, of which the earliest known and the most remarkable is Rudrabhatta's Spingāra-tilaka. Rudra states distinctly at the beginning of his work that although Bharata and others

⁸ This follows Dhananjaya's dictum that the enjoyment of Rasa is not precluded in the actor, if he realises in himself the feelings depicted.

⁹ The topics dealt with in its three chapters are: I. The rasas, the sthāyi-bhāvas, the dramatic vṛṭṭis; śṛṇgāra and its division; the Nāyaka, classified with illustrations; his assistants; classification of the Nāyikā, II. Characteristics of love-in-separation, of pūrva-rāga, the ten stages of love, the upāyas, etc. III. The other rasas, viz. hāsya, karuṇa, raudra, vīra, bhayānaka, bībhatsa, adbhuta and śānta; the four vṛṭtis appropriate to the rasas.

have spoken of Rasa in the drama, his object is to apply it to the case of poetry, and that a Kavya, in his opinion, must possess Rasa as its constant theme. Following upon this we have Bhoia's Śrngāra-prakāśā¹³, which deals with the subject in the usual elaborate cyclopaedic manner of its author. with profuse illustrations of every phase of the erotic sentiment in no less than eighteen out of its thirty-six chapters. After this come innumerable works of a similar nature¹¹. which take Rasa, especially śrngāra, as their principal theme and which were composed apparently with the object of guiding the poet in the composition of erotic pieces so popular and profuse in Sanskrit poetry. Of these, the Bhāva-prakāśa¹² of Saradatanaya, which reproduces the substance of most of the chapters of Bhoja's work, and the exhaustive Rasārnavasudhākara of Singa Bhūpāla¹³, as well as the two well-known works of Bhānudatta¹⁴, deserve mention. But none of these later treatises adds anything new or original to a subject already thrashed out to its utmost.

A new turn was given to the theory by Rūpa Gosvāmin's

- 10 See above p. 209.
- 11 See vol. i, pp. 238f, and chapter on Minor Writers.
- 12 See vol. i. p. 240.
- 13 See vol. i. p. 241f. The three vilāsas of this extensive work deal with the following topics: i. The hero, his qualities and classification; his adjuncts; the heroine, her classification and qualities, her sāttvika excellenges; the uddīpana-vibhāvas; the rīti and the guṇas; the dramatic vṛttis; the sāttvika bhāvas. ii. The vyabhicāri-bhāvas, the anu-bhāvas, the eight sthāyi-bhāvas, the eight rasas. iii. The drama and its varieties, characteristics etc.
- 14 The eight tarangas of Rasa-tarangini are: i. Definition of bhāva and subdivisions thereof; the sthāyi-bhāvas. ii. The vibhāvas. iii. The anubhāvas. iv. The eight sāttvika bhāvas. v. The vya-bhicāri-bhāvas. vi. The rasas and detailed treatment of śrngāra. vii. The other rasas. viii. The sthāyi-bhāvajā and rasajā dṛṣṭi. The Rasa-mañjari, a much smaller work, devotes more than half of itself to the nāyikā and her companions, and applies the rest to the śṛngāra-nāyaka, his assistants, the eight sāttvika guņas, the two aspects of tragāra and the ten stages of vipralambha-śṛngāra.

Ujjvala-nīla-maņi, which attempted to deal with Rasa in terms of the Vaisnava idea of ujivala or madhura rasa, by which was meant the śrngāra rasa, the term ujjvala having been apparently suggested by Bharata's description of that Rasa¹⁵. The madhura rasa, however, is represented not in its secular aspect but primarily as a phase of bhakti-rasa (madhurākhyo bhakti-rasaḥ, i. 3); for according to Vaisnava theology there are five Rasas forming roughly the five degrees of the realisation of bhakti or faith, viz., śānta (tranquillity), dāsya (servitude or humility, also called prīti), sakhya (friendship or equality, also called preyas), vātsalya (parental affection) and madhurya (sweetness). The last, also called the ujjvala rasa, being the principal, is termed bhakti-rasa-rāji. and constitutes the subject-matter of the present treatise. The kṛṣṇa-ruti or the love of Kṛṣṇa forms the dominant feeling or sthayi-bhaya of this sentiment, and the recipient here is not the literary sahrdaya but the bhakta or the faithful¹⁷. This sthāyi-bhāya, known as madhurā rati, which is the source of the particular Rasa, is defined in terms of the love of Kṛṣṇa¹¹; and the nature of nāyaka and nāyika is defined in the same manner and their feelings and emotions illustrated by adducing examples from poems dealing with the lovestories of Kṛṣṇa and Rādhā. The work is, therefore, essentially a Vaisnava religious treatise presented in a literary garb, taking Kṛṣṇa as the ideal hero, with the caution, however, that

¹⁵ yat kiñcil loke suci medhyam ujjvalam darsaniyam vā tac chrhgārenopamiyate, ed. Grosset, pp. 89-90.

¹⁶ i. 2, explained by Visvanātha Cakravartin as sānta-prīti-preyovātsalyojjvala-nāmasu mukhyeşu.....sa evojjvalāpara-paryāyo bhaktirasānām rājā madhurākhyo rasah.

¹⁷ svādyatvam hrdi bhaktānām ānītā śravanādi bhih esu krsnaratih sthāyī bhāvo bhakti-raso bhavet, cited by Viśvanātha Cakravartin, p. 4.

¹⁸ madhurākhyā; ā rater laksaņam coktam—mitho harer mīgāksyās ca sambhogasyādi-kāraņam Ļmadhurāpara-paryāyā priyatākhyoditā ratih, ibid, loc. cit.

what is true of Kṛṣṇa as the hero does not apply to the ordinary secular hero (i. 18-21)18.

With the exception of the *Ujivala-nīla-mani*, which attempts to bring erotico-religious ideas to bear upon the general theme of Rasa, these specialised treatises have, however, very little importance from the speculative point, of view: and as they belong properly to the province of Erotics rather than Poetics, treatment of them should be sought elsewhere. The simple idea, elaborated more or less in all these works is that the awakening of Rasa is all important in poetry, and that the fundamental Rasa is śrngāra or the erotic, which is consequently treated in its various phases with copious illustrations. This is clearly expressed in the attitude of the author of Agni-purana and of Bhoja, who accept only one poetic Rasa, viz. the erotic²⁰. In the same way, Rudrabhatta declares śrngāro nāyako rasah (i. 20), and Bhānudatta appears to take it for granted that spingara occupies an honoured place among all the Rasas (tatra rasesu śrngārasyābhyarhitatvena etc, ed. Benares, p. 21).

(3)

It is unnecessary, as it is unprofitable, in the discussion of general principles, to enter here into the elaborate definitions, distinctions and classifications of the amorous sentiment with all its varying emotional moods and situations, which these treatises industriously discuss and which have always possessed such attraction to mediaeval scholastic minds. The theorists delight in arranging into divisions and sub-

¹⁹ The orthodox theorists (cf Jagannātha pp. 47f) would regard bhakti (which being based on anurāga or attachment cannot be comprehended by śānta rasa) as included in bhāva, being devādi-viṣayā rati, and as madmissible as a fully developed rasa. Cf. Bhānudatta, Rasataraṅgiṇī ch. vi.—On Ujjvala-nīlamaṇi and Vaiṣṇava theory of Rasa see S. K. De, Vaiṣṇava Faith and Movement, Calcutta 1942.

²⁰ See vol. i, p. 137. Cf. also Mandāra maranda-campū ix, p. 107 (ed. Kāvyamālā).

divisions, according to rank, character, circumstances and the like, all conceivable types of the hero, the heroine and their adjuncts, together with the different shades of their gestures and feelings, in conformity with the tradition which already obtained in the cognate sphere of dramaturgy.21 Thus Rudrabhatta, after a preliminary enumeration and definition of the Rasas and the Bhavas, proceeds to speak of two aspects of Srngara, viz. sambhoga (love in union) and vipralambha (love in separation)²², and classify the hero (nāyaka) into the faithful (anukūla), the gallant whose attention is equally divided among many (daksina), the sly (satha), and the saucy (dhṛṣṭa), according to his character as a lover. Later writers, however, subdivide each of these, again, into the best (uttama), the middling (madhyama) and the lowest (adhama), and arrange the whole classification under the fourfold division of the genus hero into four types viz., (i) the brave and the high-spirited (dhīrodātta) (ii) the brave and haughty (dhīroddhata) (iii) the brave and sportive (dhīralalita) and (iv) the brave and serene (dhīra-prašānta), thus giving us altogether forty-eight subdivisions of the hero²³

- 21 See Bharata ch. xxii-xxiv; Daša-rūpaka iv. 50f and iii.
- 22 This statement follows Bharata and is accepted by most theorists including Bhoja; but Dhanañjaya distinguishes three cases, privation (ayoga), sundering (viprayoga) and union (sambhoga): the first denoting the inability of lovers, through obstacles, to secure union, and the second arising from absence or resentment. The first case of love may pass through the well-known ten stages (longing, anxiety, recollection, praise of the beloved, distress, raving, insanity, fever, stupor and death; cf Singabhūpāla ii. 178-201); while the second condition may be caused by a quarrel, due to discovery or inference of unfaithfulness (which may be counteracted by six upāyas, viz. conciliation, winning over her friends, gifts, humility, indifference or distracting her attention) or by absence arising from business, accident or a curse.
- 23 The good qualities of the hero are innumerable. For his characteristics, see Dhanafijaya ii. If; Viśvanātha iii. 30f; Śiṅgabhūpāla i. 61f; etc. On the theme of Nāyaka-Nāyikā, as treated in Alamkāra works, see V. Raghavan, Introd. to his ed. Akbarshahi Srāgāra-mañjārī pp. 14-90.

Then follows a brief description of the assistants of the hero³⁴ in matters of love (narma-saciva), viz. the Comrade (pītha-marda), the Companion (vita) and the Buffoon (vidūşaka), some adding ceta (or the servant) in the enumeration.

In the same way, the heroine is taken broadly in threefold aspects in her relation to the hero as his wife (svīyā), or belonging to another, (parakiyā) and as common to all (sāmānyā). The Śviyā is subdivided again into the adolescent and artless (mugdhā), the youthful (madhyā), and the mature and audacious (pragalbhā), i.e. the inexperienced, the partly experienced and the fully experienced. Later authors introduce greater fineness by subdividing each of these according to her temper, into the self-possessed (dhīrā), the notself-possessed (adhīrā), and the partially self-possessed (dhīrādhīrā), or according to the rank, higher (jyesthā) or lower (kanistha), each holds in the affection of the hero. The Parakīyā or Anyadīyā who, according to Vaisņava ideas, is the highest type of the heroine, is twofold, according as she is a maiden (kanyā) or married $(\bar{u}dh\bar{a})^{25}$; while the sümānyā heroine, who is sometimes extolled (Rudrabhatta) and sometimes deprecated (Rudrata), is only of one kind. the $ve sy\bar{a}$ or courtesan²⁶. The sixteen types of heroine thus

- 24 The Pratināyaka or the rival of the hero is dhīroddhata, haughtiness being his essential characteristic; but he is described also as stubborn and vicious (Daša° ii 9; Sāhitya-darpaṇa iii. 130, p. 136). The pīthamarda of the hero possesses, in a lesser degree, the qualities of the hero (e. g. Makaranda in the Mālatī-mādhava). The term pīthamardikā in the feminine occurs in the Mālavikāgnimitra in the sense of a trusty go-between, applied to the nun Kaušikī. The vita, usually neglected in the serious drama, except in Cārudatta and Mṛcchakatika, appears in all his glory in the Bhāṇa, for which he is prescribed as the hero.
- 25. An amour with a married woman cannot, according to Rudrata and Rudrabhatta form the subject of dominant Rasa in a play or poem; but this is the central theme of Vaisnava yrics.
- 26 Bharata xxii. 197-206: Dhanañjaya il. 21f: Visvanātha iii. 67-70; Singabhūpāla i. 121-51. Rarely a heroine, she must be represented as in love when she is a heroine; but she cannot be so when the hero is

obtained are further arranged according to eightfold diversity in their condition or situation in relation to her lover, viz. the heroine who has the lover under absolute control (svādhīna-patikā), the heroine disappointed in through misadventure or involuntary her assignation absence (utkā), the heroine in full dress of her lover (vāsaka-sajjikā), the heroine deceived (vipralabdhā), the heroine separated by a quarrel (kalahānataritā, also called abhisamdhitā), the heroine outraged by the discovery of marks of unfaithfulness in the lover (khanditā), the heroine who meets her lover by assignation²⁷ (abhisārikā) and the heroine pining for the absence of her lover gone abroad (prosita-patikā). We arrive in this way at an elaborate classification of the heroine into three hundred and eightyfour types; and one of the later writers states characteristically that there are other types also, but they cannot be specified for fear of prolixity (Viśvanātha iii. 88, p. 120).

But here the theorists do not stop. The hero is endowed further by a set of eight special excellences, as springing from his character (sāttvika): e. g. brilliance (śobhā) including heroism, cleverness, truthfulness, emulation with superiors and compassion to inferiors; vivacity (vilāsa) indicated by his glance, step and laughing voice; grace (mādhurya) displayed in placid demeanour even in trying circumstances; equanimity (gambhīrya) consisting of superiority to emotions; steadfastness (sthairya) in obtaining one's object; sense of honour (tejas) manifested in his impatience of insult; gallantry (lalita) in his word, dress or deportment; magnanimity (audārya) exhibited in generosity, agreeable words and equal treatment to friend or foe. The heroine is allowed a

divine or royal. The exception occurs in a prahasana or farce (and incidentally in a bhāṇa or the erotic monologue) where she can be represented in her low and avaricious character for comic effect.

27 The usual meeting places are given as a ruined temple. a garden, the house of a go-between, a cemetery, the bank of a stream, or any dark place generally.

more generous set of qualities. First we have the three physical (angaja) characteristics; bhava or first indication of emotion in a nature previously exempt, hava or movement of eyes and brows indicating the awakening of emotion. helā or the decided enanifestation of feeling. Then we have seven inherent qualities. e.g. brilliance of youth, beauty and passion, the touch of loveliness given by love, sweetness, courage, meekness, radiance and self-control. Then are enumerated her ten graces, to which Visvanātha adds eight more. All her gestures, moods or different shades of emotion. giggling, trepidation, hysterical fluster of delight. e.g. involuntary expression of affection, self-suppression through bashfulness, affected repulse of endearments, as well as the deepest and tenderest display of sentiments, are minutely analysed and classified. To this is added a detailed description of the modes in which the different types of heroines display their affection, the maidenly modest demeanour of the mugdha or the shameless boldness of the more experienced heroine. We should recognise the subtle power of analysis and insight which these attempts indicate; but speaking generally, the analysis is more of the form than of the spirit, based on what we should consider accidents rather than essentials. At the same time, marked as it is by much of scholastic formalism, there is an unmistakable attempt to do justice to facts, not only as they appeared to the experience of these theorists but to the observation of general poetic usage; and in the elaborate working out of the general thesis that the Rasa is evolved on the basis of one or other of what they call the permanent mental moods, with the help of the various emotional adjuncts, the writers on Poetics have proceeded a long way in the careful analysis of poetic emotions, the psychology of which bears an intimate relation to their theory and in itself deserves a separate study.

(4)

The discussion of this extensive topic of the nāyaka and nāyikā comes in topicaily under the theory of vibhāva and anubhāva, which act as factors of Rasa. The mood, which is at the root of sentiment, is held to be the sthāyi-bhāva, the dominant feeling, the main theme of the composition in question. These feelings, according to Bharata, who is accepted on this point by all writers, can be classified into eight categories, viz. Love (rati), Mirth (hāsa), Sorrow (śoka), Anger (krodha), Energy (utsāha), Fear (bhaya), Disgust (jugupsā) and Astonishment (vismaya), though some later writers add, as we shall see, Tranquility (śama or nirveda) to the number. These dominant feelings are worked up into a corresponding number of sentiments or Rasas through the means of the vibhāvas etc²s. The vibhāvas or Excitants are said to be of two

28 Theoretically the Rasa is one, a single ineffable and impersonal joy, but it can be subdivided, not according to its own nature but according to the emotions which form its basis. Bharata (ch. vi) and other theorists give a full description of the stl.āyi bhāvas, vibhāvas etc. in the case of each Rasa, into which space forbids us to enter. A summary of it will be found in Lindenau, Rasalehre Leipzig 1913, pp. 18f. Thus, in the case of the heroic sentiment (vira), the dominant feeling is energy (utsāha): the excitants (vibhāras) are coolness (asammoha), resolve (adhyavasāya), circumspection (naya), strength (bala) etc.; the ensuants (anubhāvas) are firmness (sthairya), heroism (śaurya). sacrifice (tyāga) etc.; the vyabhicārins or accessory feelings are those of assurance, arrogance etc. Visvanātha gives them somewhat differently. The essential excitent (alambana-vibnava) of the heroic sentiment, according to him, consists of those to be vanquished, and their acts and gestures form the enhancing excitants (udilipana-vibhavas); the ensuants comprehend the desire or seeking for assistants and adherents; while the accessory feelings are patience, intelligence. remembrance. cogitation etc. The sentiment may take three forms of courage (Bharata vi. 79=ed. Regnaud vi. 80), viz. in battle (yuddha-vīra), in virtuous deeds (dharma-vīra) and in liberality (dāna-vīra), to which later writers (e.g. Visvanatha) add dayā-vīra. It should also be noted that a special colour and a presiding deity is attributed to each Rasa. Thus, red. black, white, dark (syama) and grey are associated not unreasonably with kinds², viz., (1) the Substantial or Essential (ālambana), which consists of such material and indispensable ingredients as the hero, the heroine, the rival hero and their adjuncts, and (2) the Enhancing (uddipana), viz, such conditions of time, place and circumstance as serve to foster the Rasa, e.g. the rising of the moon, the cry of the cuckoo etc. in the case of the erotic sentiment. The anubhavas or the Ensuants, which follow and strengthen a mood, comprise such outward manifestations of feeling as sidelong glances, a smile, a movement of the body, or such involuntary action of sympathetic realisation of the persons depicted (sāttvika)³⁰ as fainting (pralaya), change of colour (vaivarnya), trembling (vepathu) etc., which are, again dogmatically classified into eight varieties. There are other feelings of a more or less transitory nature, which accompany or interrupt the permanent mood without, however, supplanting it; and these are known, as we have noted, by the name of Accessories or vyabhicāri-bhāvas. These are likened to servants following a king or to waves of the sea, whereby the dominant mood is understood as the king and the sea respectively, and classified elaborately into thirty-three categories, first mentioned by Bharata (p. 23f above) and implicitly accepted by his followers.

All these elements contribute towards developing the eight or nine sthāyi-bhāvas into eight or nine different types of

the furious, terrible, comic. erotic and pathetic sentiments, although it is difficult to explain why horror is dark blue (nīla), wonder is orange, and heroism is yellow. The respective deities are Viṣṇu (erotic), Yama (pathetic), Pramatha (comic), Rudra (furious), Indra (heroic), Kāla (terrible), Mahākāla (disgustful), Brahmā (marvellous). Viśvanātha adds that Nārāyaņa is the presiding deity of śānta rasa and the colour associated is that of jasmine (kunda).

- 29 These two divisions of vibhāva are not maintained by Bharata but distinguished by Dhanañjaya (iv. 2) and traditionally handed down by Viśvanātha.
- 30 See above p. 24, fn 55. The sāttvika bhāvas in later works form a special class of anubhāvas.

Rasa. We have the earliest and most orthodox mention in Bharata (p. 23 above) of eight sthāyi-bhāyas and the resulting eight Rasas corresponding to them, of which the Erotic (śrngāra), the Heroic (vīra), the Furious (raudra) and the Disgustful (bībhatsa) are the main, leading to four others, the Comic (hāsya), the Marvellous (adbhuta), the Pathetic (karuna) and the Terrible (bhayānaka). Dandin accepts this classification (ii. 280-87), but Udbhata (iv. 4) adds 31 the Quietistic (santa) as the ninth Rasa, although Bharata" neither defines it nor mentions its corresponding vibhāvas. Rudraţa is singular in postulating a tenth Rasa, called the Agreeable (preyas). which is accepted by Bhoja, with the addition of two new Rasas, Udātta and Uddhata, as well as Śānta. Rudrabhatta admits nine Rasas in poetry; so do Hemacandra and the two Vāgbhatas. The Agni-purāna in the same way mentions nine Rasas (and eight sthāyi-bhāvas), but follows Bharata in regarding four as principal and lays special stress on the Srngara. Anandavardhana admits Santa (pp. 138, 238). Those later authors who accept the ninth Rasa, the Quietistic, necessarily postulate nirveda or self-disparagement, arising out of the knowledge of reality (tattva-jñāna), as its sthāyibhāva, which is called by some authorities sama, or repose resulting from freedom from mental excitement³³. Vaisnava writers (especially Kavikarņapūra add Dāsya. Sakhya, Vātsalya, Preman and Bhakti.³⁴

³¹ If the verse is genuinely Udbhata's. See above p. 114, fn 15.—On the Santa Rasa in Bharata and Dhanañjaya see S. K. De, Some Problems pp. 139-41. On the number and nomenclature of Rasas generally see V. Raghavan, Number of Rasas, Adyar 1940

³² The Santa texts in Bharata, available in certain recensions, are interpolations. See Paghavan, op. cit. pp. 15f. Kālidāsa knew only eight Rasas, Vikramorvasīya ii. 18, where Muni Bharata is also mentioned.

³³ This sentiment is also closely related to the sentiment of disgust; for it arises from an aversion to worldly things.

³⁴ See S. K. De, Vaisnava Faith and Movement, p. 145.

The author of the Dasa rūpaka, however, contends that there can be no such sthāyi-bhāya as nirveda or sama, for the development of that state (if it is at all possible to destroy utterly love, hatred and other human feelings) would tend to the absence of all modes; and in the drama, the object of which is to delineate and inspire passion, it is inadmissible. Others, again, hold that the Quietistic Rasa does exist, as it is experienced by those who have attained that blissful state. but it has no sthāyi-bhāva in dramatic composition; for nirveda, being the cessation of all worldly activity, or sama being freedom from all mental excitement, it is not fit to be represented. Hence Mammata takes eight Rasas in the drama (p. 98) and nine in poetry (p. 117). Bhoja, in accordance with the views of the school which lays special emphasis on the Srngara, accepts only one Rasa, the Erotic, in his Srngaraprakāša; and although he mentions as many as ten Rasas in his Sarasvati-kanthabharana, including the santa and the preyas, he appears to devote almost exclusive attention to the Śragara in his treatment of the Rasas in this work. The views about the admissibility of the santa are discussed by the author of the Ekāvalī (pp. 96-7) who mairtains that Bharata has mentioned nirveda as a vyabhicāri-bhāva immediately in context after the enumeration of the sthayi-bhavas and at the beginning of the list of the vyabhicari-bhavas; and this fact is interpreted as indicating that the sage meant it both as a sthāyi-bhāya and as a vyabhicāri-bhāya; but Hemacandra (p. 81) anticipates and rejects this quibble of verbal interpretation, though agreeing in the general proposition as to the admissibility of Santa as the ninth Rasa.

Visvanātha primarily admits eight orthodox Rasas (iii, p. 160) but adds the ninth Sānta in deference to the views of these authorities, and a tenth Rasa, called vātsalya or parental affection, subscribing apparently to Vaisnava ideas (pp. 185 6)²⁵. He quotes a verse to explain that the mood,

called by the great sages the Quietistic, which has, among all sentiments, tranquillity (sama) as its basis, is that state in which there is neither pain nor pleasure, nor hatred, nor affection, nor any desire. But the question arises how can the Quietistic, being of the nature described, arising only in a state of emancipation wherein there is an absence of all feelings like the Accessories etc., be Rasa, which implies a state of relishable enjoyment37. To this objection Visvanatha replies that the Quietistic is a Rasa because in that state the soul is only about to be emancipated (yukta-viyukta-daśā) and is not completely absorbed in the Divine, so that the presence of feelings, like the Accessories etc. in it is not incompatible. As for the statement that there is an absence of even pleasure in it, it is not contradictory, for it refers only to worldly pleasures. Jaganuatha, the latest writer on the subject. advocates nine Rasas and maintains (pp. 29-30) that like all other Rasas, the Santa is capable of being represented and appreciated by the audience. Since the clever performance of the actor, representing such a state of mind, free from disturbance and not affected by passions or desire, is found in actual experience to produce an impression on the mind of the audience, it is their state of mind, exhibited by their silent and rapt attention, which ought to settle the question. The representation of absolute indifference or the actor's power of representing it is not the point in issue: it is the capacity of

Rudrata mentioned preyas (triendship), 'which Rasa is accepted by Bhoja. Some writers add *troddha* along with blakt. See Bhanudatta, op. cit. p. 56, 11. 25f (ed. Regnaud). Singa-bhūpāla admits only eight Rasas, but his treatment is from the standpoint of dramaturgy.

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³⁶ na yarra duḥkhanı na sukham na cintā, na dveşa-rūgau na ca kācid icchā | rasaḥ sa šāntaḥ kathito munīndraiḥ, sarveşu bhāveşu an ta-pradhānaḥ | |, cited also in Dasa v. 49 (comm).

³⁷ ity evam-rūpasya šāntasya moksāvasthāyām evātma-svarā pāpattilaksaņāyām prādurbhūtatvāt tatra sañcāryādīnām abhāvāt katham rasatvam.

³⁸ yaš cāsmin sukhābhāvo'pyuktas tasya vaisayika-sukhu paratvūn nu virodhah.

the spectator who actually feels the sentiment. Jagannātha also adds that even those, who do not admit this Rasa in the drama, should accept it in poetry from the fact that poems like the Mahābhārata have for principal theme the delineation of Śānta Rasa, which is thus established by universal experience (akhila-lokānubhava-siddhatvāt). Nāgeśa remarks on this that the śānta rasa should also be admitted in the drama on this ground, inasmuch as the Prabodha-candrodaya is universally acknowledged as a drama (p. 30).

Coming to the essential basis of Rasa, viz. the bhāva, we have seen that Bharata defines it in general terms as that which manifests the sense of poetry through the three kinds of representation, vācika, āngika and sāttvika39; it is the emotion which ultimately becomes a sentiment, if it is dominant and therefore, serves as the basis of Rasa. But later writers arrive at a greater precision and apply the term technically to those cases where there is no proper or complete development of Rasa. Both Dhanañjaya and Bhānudatta expand the definition of Bharata, the latter defining it as a deviation from the natural mental state (vikāra) which is favourable to the development of Rasa (rasānukūla) and which may be either physical (sārīra) or mental (āntara). But Mammata fixes the conception of Bhava as ratir devadivisayā vyabhicārī tathāñjitah ('love having for its object a deity or the like, and also the suggested Accessory'), on which he adds the gloss: ādi śabdān muni-guru-nṛpa-putrādi-vişayā, kāntā-visayā tu vyaktā śrngārah ('by the term the like are meant sages, preceptor, the king, son etc., the one having a beloved woman for its object becomes the erotic') Govinda explains that the word rati here implies the sthayi-bhava which has not attained to the state of Rasa40. What is meant is that when the sthāyi-bhāvas, like rati, have for their objects

³⁹ A fourth kind of abhinaya is sometimes added, viz. āhārya (extraneous) i.e. derived from dress, decoration etc.

⁴⁰ ratır iti sthäyı-bhüvopalakşanam, devädi-vişayety apy aprāpta-rasāvasthopalakşanam, p. 206.

god, king, son and the like, or when the vyabhicāri-bhāvas are manifested as the principal sentiment in a composition, there is no rasa but bhāva; and this definition is accepted by all writers after him.

Thus, Viśvanātha explains the Bhāva as follows:
sañcāriņaḥ pradhānāni, devādi-vişayā ratiḥ/
udbuddha-mātraḥ sthāyī ca. bhāva ity abhidhīyate//

In other words, when the Accessories are principal, or when love etc. has a deity or the like for its object, or when a dominant feeling (sthāyi-bhāva) is metely awakened, we have Bhāva. His own gloss upon the above verse explains it in this way. Although they are always concomitants of Rasa in which they finally rest, such Accessories as are for the time being principally developed, like a servant for the time being followed by his king in his marriage procession: or love etc. having a deity, a sage, a spiritual guide, a king and the like for its object; or such sthāyi-bhāvas as are merely awakened or have not attained the state of a Rasa from their not being fully developed, are denoted by the term bhava. In all these cases apparently there is no complete or proper development of Rasa; and a Bhava, therefore, in later terminology, may be generally described as an incomplete Rasa. But this must be distinguished from the rasabhasa or semblance of Rasa and the analogous bhāvābhāsa, which occur when the poetic sentiments and emotions are falsely attributed (e.g. sentiments in animals such as described in Kumārasambhava, iii. 36-7), or when they are brought out improperly, i.e. when there is a lack of entireness in them as regards their ingredients. The cases occur, according to Bhoja (v. 20) when the mood or emotion is developed in an inferior character (hīna-pātra), in animals (tiryac), in the rivel hero (nāyaka-pratiyogin) or in any other subordinate object (gauņa

⁴¹ anaucitya-pravṛttatve ābhāso rasa-bhāvayoḥ (Mammata) explained as: anaucityam cātra rasānām bharatādi praṇīta-lakṣaṇānām sāmagrīrahıtasus tveka-deša-yogitvopalakṣaṇa-paraṃ bodhyam.

padartha)⁴², but Viśvanātha elaborately summarises various other cases (iii. 263-66), especially noting improprieties in connexion with particular Rasas. Thus, there is an impropriety if the Terrible (bhayānaka) is made to reside in a noble personage, or the Comic (hāsva) in a spiritual guide. It must be noted, as Jagannātha explains, that if a mood or feeling is developed by impropriety, the impropriety, unless it acts as a bar, does not constitute a fault⁴³.

In the same way (1) when there is an excitement only (and not full development) of sentiments, (2) when two opposing sentiments, striving for mastery, are represented as being relished in one and the same place and at the same time, or (3) when a number of sentiments, of which each succeeding one puts down the preceding, they constitute respectively bhāvodaya, bhāya-samdhi and bhāya-sabalatā. Now, all these phases of sentiment are taken as Rasa topically, inasmuch as they are capable of being tasted (sarve'pi rasanād rasāh). These cases do not seem to have been formally recognised by Bharata, though hinted at by him in vi. 40, as we learn from Abhinava's commentary on ch. vi, which is partially reproduced also in his *Locana, p. 66. They are first met with in Udbhata, who includes them under ūrjasvin (iv. 6); but in Rudrata (xii. 4) and the Dhvanikāra (ii. 3) we find them definitely established.

This incomplete development of Rasa and its subordination must be distinguished from the cases of the opposition (virodha) of simultaneously existing sentiments in the same theme. It is laid down formally that some Rasas are intrinsically inconsistent with one another, e.g. the Erotic is opposed to the Disgustful, the Heroic to the Quietistic, and so forth.

⁴² Singa-bhūpāla (pp. 141-2) distinguishes two cases (i) where Rasa is ascribed to an inanimate object and (ii) where it is developed in an inferior character or in animals.

⁴³ yāvatā tvanaucityena rasasya pastis tāvat tu na vāryate, rasapratikūlasyaiva tasya ni**se**dhatvā!.

⁴⁴ Some Rasas again are mutually consistent, e.g. karuna and

The incongruity or opposition results in three ways, viz. (1) from identity of the exciting cause (ālambana-vibhāva) (2) from identity of the subject of emotion and (3) from immediacy of succession. The incongruity in the first two cases may be removed by representing the sentiments as having different exciting causes respectively, or as existing in different subjects (e.g. in the hero and the rival hero). The last case of conflict may be removed by placing, between the two immediately succeeding sentiments, a sentiment which is not opposed to them. These are cases where two or more Rasas stand in the relation of principal and subordinate; the term 'subordinate' being misleading, it is sometimes called a concomitant Rasa (sañcārin), which implies that it cannot terminate absolutely in itself and at the same time is distinct from a fully developed Rasa, as well as from a mere undeveloped Bhāva45. There is also no incongruity where a conflicting Rasa is recalled or described under a comparison. All these questions properly come under the theory of Propriety or Aucitya in relation to Rasa, elaborated by Anandavardhana and his followers, and is ultimately based on the dictum attributed to the Dhvanikara (p. 145, cf. *Locana p. 138), which lays down in general terms that the secret of Rasa lies in conforming to the established rules of propriety.

bībhatsa go with vira; sṛṅgāra goes with hāsya (cf Bharata vi. 40) etc. On this question see Lindenau, Rasalehre (pp. 71f). According to Viśvanātha, the Rasas hostile (i) to śṛṅgāra are karuṇa, bīþhatsa, raudra. vīra and bhayānaka (ii) to hāsya—bhayānaka and karuṇa (iii) to karuṇa—hāsya and śṛṅgāra (iv) to raudra—hāsya, śṛṅgāra and bhayānaka (v) to vīra—bhayānaka and śānta (vi) to bhayānaka-śṛṅgāra, vīra, raudra, hāsya and śānta (vii) to śānta—vīra, śṛṅgāra raudra, hāsya and bhayānaka (viii) to sānta—vīra, śṛṅgāra raudra, hāsya and bhayānaka (viii) to sōibhatsa—śṛṅgāra. Bhānudatta gives the antagonistic Rasas as follow: śṛṅgāra bībhatsa; vīra bhayānaka; raudra adbhata; hāsya karuṇa.

45 ata evātra pradhānetareşu raseşu svātantrya-viśrāma-rāhityāt, pūrņarasa-bhāva-mātrāc ca vilakşaņatayā, sañcāri-rasa-nāmnā vyapa-dešaḥ prācyānām, Viśvanātha, p. 420.

The doctrine of the Dhvanyāloka that in a composition in which the sentiment is awakened, proprieties of various kinds (e. g. with reference to the speaker, the theme, the employment of the vibhavas etc., the use of the alamkaras and other elements, pp. 134f, 144f) should be observed, and that certain items of conflict (virodha) with the dominant sentiment should be avoided, gave rise to a theory of Propriety, which is generally comprehended by later writers under the discussion of the Dosas of Rasa. Thus, in later treatises, the rasa-dosas occupy a separate and important place, in addition to the conventional dosas of pada, padartha, vākva, vākvārtha recognised since Vamana's time. It is Ksemendra alone who emphasises the importance of the subject by making it the theme of his Aucitya-vicāra-carcā which will be noticed in its proper place. Mahimabhatta, in the second chapter of his work, considers the question of anaucitya in some detail. According to him, impropriety or incongruity has two aspects, according as it refers to sabda or to artha respectively. Then he speaks of propriety as external (bahiranga) or internal (antaranga), apparently as it is śabda-vişaya or artha-vişaya. The cases of internal propriety, which consists in the proper employment of the vibhavas etc. have already been explained by previous writers (e.g. the Dhvanyāloka pp. 144f). Mahimabhatta, therefore, takes up the question of external propriety. which he thinks falls under five faults of composition, viz. vidheyāvimarša (non-discrimination of the predicate). prakrama-bheda (violation of uniformity in the expression). krama-bheda (syntactical irregularity), paunaruktya (tautology) and vācyavacana (omission of what must be expressed), to the explanation and exemplification of which he devotes, amidst several digressions, the rest of the chapter (ch. ii). It is difficult to say why these faults of expression alone are singled out as defects resulting in a violation of Rasa (rasabhanga). Later writers would include them under general defects, reserving the cases of virodha or opposition of Rasas as specific instances of rasa-dosas.

CHAPTER X

WRITERS ON KAVI-SIKŞĀ

The small group of writers who deal with the theme of kavi-śiksā ("education of the poet") does not, strictly speaking, come directly under general Poetics, but deserves notice, partly from the reputation and authority enjoyed by some of these authors but chiefly because it displays a peculiar tendency which emphasises one aspect of Poetics as a discipline, namely, its practical object which developed side by side with the theoretical consideration of general principles treatises do not deal with the conventional topics of Poetics, with its theories, dogmas and definitions, but they are meant chiefly as manuals to guide the poet in his profession, their primary object being kavi-śiksā or instruction of the aspiring poet in the devices of the craft. It is difficult, in the absence of data, to determine the origin of this school, but the attitude adopted is significant, being almost co-extensive with what may be supposed to have been the original standpoint of Poetics itself as a more or less mechanical Ars Poetica1. The ancient as well as the modern writers on general Poetics, doubt, touch occasionally upon the question of the practical training of the poet²; and it is not improbable that this in course of time formed the object of a separate study and multiplied these convenient handbooks, of which necessarily we possess comparatively late specimens.

(1)

Kşemendra

Kşemendra's two works, Aucitya-vicāra-carcā and Kavi-kanthābharana, which may be conveniently grouped here, are

- 1 See above pp. 33-34 and footnote 3
- 2 See above pp. 42f.

curious and valuable in many respects. In his theory of Aucityas or propriety, he takes as his thesis, mainly, Anandavardhana's treatment of the same question with reference to Rasa which is crystallised in the oft-quoted verse from the Dhvanyāloka: "There is no other circumstance which leads to the violation of Rasa than impropriety; the supreme secret of Rasa consists in observing the established rules of propriety". To depict Rasa, it is necessary to observe the rules of propriety; and the subject, which is anticipated by Bharata (who, for instance, speaks of the proper employment of anubhāvas), may take various forms according as it relates to the subject-matter, the speaker, the nature of the sentiment evoked or the means employed in evoking it. We have already noted that this theme has been discussed topically at some length by the formulators of the Dhvani-theory, by Mahimabhatta, as well as by most post-dhvani writers who consider it generally in connexion with rasa-dosas. Ksemendra develops and pushes the idea to its extreme, and speaks of Aucitya as the essence of Rasa (rasa jīvitabhūta). and as having its foundation in the charm or aesthetic pleasure (camatkāra) underlying the relish of Rasa. The Alamkāra and Guna in poetry are justified by and receive their respective significance from this element which may, therefore, be fittingly regarded as the 'soul' of poetry'. That which is suitable or conformable to another is called ucita in its relation to that object. This Aucitya may have application with reference to various points in a poem, such as word (pada), a sentence $(v\bar{a}kya)$, the sense of the composition as a whole (prabandhārtha). its literary excellences (guṇas) its

- 3 V. Raghavan (Some Concepts pp. 194-257) gives an able and detailed account of the history of Aucitya.
 - 4 anaucityād rte nānyad rasa-bhangasya kāranam | prasiddhaucitya-bandhas tu rasasyopanişat parā | |
 - 5 ed. Kāvyamālā, Gucchaka i, pp. 115-16.
- 6 ucitam prāhur acāryāh sadršam kila yasya yat, explained by the gloss as: yat kila yasyānurūpam tad ucitam ucyate.—On the theory of Pāka and Sayyā. allied to the theory of Aucitya, see above pp. 240-41.

poetic figures (alamkāras), the Rasa or the sentiment in a poem, the employment of the verb $(kriy\bar{a})$, the use of the case (kāraka), of the gender (linga), of the number (vacana), of preposition, adjective, particles (upasarga), or considerations of time and place (deša and kāla) etc.; and the cases of application are dogmatically summarised as twenty-seven in number (sl. 8-10). The treatment of each of these cases is accompanied by profuse illustrations of every point from the works of various poets, the favourite method being first to cite examples of verses which comply with a rule and then adduce one or two examples of verses which do not do so. There is hardly anything original in the theory itself; for though it rightly insists upon a standard of propriety in poetic expression, it ultimately resolves itself into assuming a more or less variable criterion of taste or personal appreciation, which Anandavardhana and others admit as sahrdayatva. but which is bound to be, as it is, rather vaguely defined and therefore incapable of exhaustive formal treatment. It is really the province of taste or criticism rather than of Poetics proper.

At the same time, the fact must not be overlooked that works of this nature in Sanskrit, ostensibly meant as they are for the guidance of the aspiring poet, display, in their discussion of what is right and proper in poetry, a tendency towards genuine criticism, taken apart from the beaten paths of orthodox Poetics; and they set up in their naïve way a standard, whatever it may be, of taste and critical judgment. No doubt, most writers on general Poetics, betray some critical acumen and give us a great deal of critical or semi-critical matter while considering the application of a rule or principle, especially in the chapters on Dosa and Guna; but their outlook is often and necessarily limited by their confining themselves to rigid rules and specific definitions.

7 The growth of artificial poetry, we have seen, made the echnical analysis of rhetoric and instruction of it, a necessity; but rhetoric involves (and sometimes becomes identical with) criticism; and it is

Ksemendra's work, in this respect, possesses a unique value, and the part of his treatment which discusses the illustrative verses is extremely interesting as an evidence of "appreciation" which is comparatively rare in Sanskrit. praise and deals mendra out censure. within limits, as a true critic who is no respector of persons; even the honoured names of Amaru. Kālidāsa or Bhavabhūti make no difference. In more than one instance, he illustrates two sides of a question, regarding both merit or defect laid down by a rule, by different verses from his own work; and in some cases he does not hesitate to go against orthodox opinion^s. Whatever may be the intrinsic value of his critical dicta, some of which may appear too trivial or crude to us. he shows a wide acquaintance with the whole range of classical Sanskrit Poetry and an undoubtedly cultured taste. If the common saving that a bad poet often turns out to be a good critic carries any wisdom in it, it is very apt in the case of Ksemendra whose critical powers cannot indeed be ignored.

almost impossible for Alamkārikas, who also theorised on principles, not to busy themselves with the forms and general phenomena of literature. Thus, most works, whether on general poetics or on rhetoric, do involve some amount of criticism which could not be avoided. It must also be borne in mind that our modern ideas of Aesthetics, Poetics or Rhetoric are not sharply distinguished in these old authors, nor was there any well-defined notion of the respective spheres of these studies. The theorists drew their ideas of poetry mainty from existing classical Sanskrit literature which, though magnificent in partial accomplishment, was not fully equipped for purposes of general criticism. The absence of some other literature for comparison—for later Prakrit and allied specimens are mainly derivative—was a serious drawback. This will explain partially why their outlook is so limited, and their principles and definitions so stereotyped.

8 E. g. while discussing the question of propriety of the contents of a composition, he cites (p. 120) from Kumāra-sambhava viii—which canto he accepts as Kālidāsa's—and severely censures the poet's manner of describing the amours of Hara and Pārvatī in terms of ordinary dalliance, against the authority of Anandavardhana who defends (p. 137) it against the imputation of vulgarity.

Ksemendra's other work. Kavi-kanthābharana. though less interesting, is equally remarkable for its refreshingly novel treatment. Ksemendra postulates two impulses for the attainment of poetic capacity, viz. divine help (divyaprayatna) and individual effort (paurusa). The first includes prayer, incantation and other heavenly aids; but from the latter standpoint, he classifies three groups of persons10 with whom instruction in the art of poetry is concerned, viz. those who require little effort (alpa-prayatna-sādhya), those who require great effort (krcchra-sādhya), and those in whom all effort is fruitless (asādhya), and sums up by saving that the capacity for poetry is vouchsafed only to the fit and few. The next chapter discusses with illustrations the question of borrowing or plagiarism¹¹, a theme which is just touched upon in the fourth chapter of the Dhvanyāloka¹² but which is dealt with extensively by Rajasekhara¹³. Ksemendra divides

- 9 A sketch of this work will be found in Ksemendra's Kavikanthā-bharana by J. Schönberg (Wien 1884), pp. 9f. The five samhis or sections of this work deal respectively with the following themes: (1) attainment of poetry by an unpoetical per n (akaveḥ kavitvāptiḥ), (ii) instruction of the poet already gifted (śikṣā prāpta-giraḥ kaveḥ), (iii) strikingness (camatkṛti), and the faults and excellences of poetry, (iv) familiarity which a poet should possess with other arts and sciences as a source of charm to his poetry (paricaya-cārutva).
 - 10 Cf Vāmana 1. 2. 1-5; Rājašekhara iv.
- 11 Bāṇa (Harşa c. i. 5-6) distinctly condemns poetasters and plagiarists. Vāmana appears to be the first writer on Poetics who in his classification of Artha refers to the question of plagiarism.
- 12 In Anandavardhana's opinion, the province of poetry is unlimited, in spite of the fact that hundreds of poets have composed works for centuries; but the thoughts of two inspired poets may bear certain resemblance, which may be like that between an object and its reflection between a thing and its picture, or between two human beings. The first two kinds of resemblance should be avoided, but the third is charming (iii 12-13)
- 13 In ch. xi-xii. For a summary of his views see V. M. Kulkarni, Sanskrit Writers on Plagiarism in JOS. iii (1954), pp. 403-411. Rājašekhara declares that "there is no poet that is not a thief, no merchant that does not steal, but he who knows how to hide his theft flourishes without

poets from this point of view into those who imitate the general colour of a poet's idea (chāyopajīvin), those who borrow a word or a verse-line (padaka- and pada-upajivin), or an entire poem (sakalopajīvin) and lastly, those who borrow from sources considered universally as legitimate (bhuvanopajīvya, e.g. Vyāsa). Then he lays down elaborate rules for regulating the life, character and education of the poet. This is followed by a discussion of camatkara or poetic charm, without which, we are told, no poetry is possible, and an illustration (by means of examples draw from the works of various poets) of its tenfold aspect, according as it appeals with or without much thought (avicarita-ramaniya or vicaryamāṇa-ramaṇīya¹⁴), resides in a part or in the whole composition, appertains to the sound, the sense or both, or relates to the poetic figure, to the sentiment, or to the well-known nature of the theme. Then we come to the treatment of the excellences and defects with reference to the sense (artha), the verbal expression (sabda), or the poetic sentiment (rasa) involved; and the work is rounded off by indicating the extent of knowledge which a poet must possess and giving a long list of the arts and sciences in which he must be proficient, which is thus set forth: tatra tarka-vyākaraņa-bharata-cāṇakyavātsyāyana-bhārata-rāmāyana-moksopāyātmajñāna-Lhātuvādaratnaparīkṣā-vaidyaka-jyotiṣa-dhanurveda-gaja-turaga-puruṣalakşana-dyütendrajāla-prakīrnesu paricayah kavi-sāmrājyavyafijanah. This rapid summary of the contents of this work

reproach". He deals with two kinds of plagiarism, namely, that which should be avoided and that which should be adopted. In his opinion, a poet may be a creator (Utpādaka) or an adapter (Parivartaka), or a coverer up (Ācchādaka) or a collector (Samgrāhaka). He who sees something new in word and sense and writes up something old may be accounted a great poet. Rājašekhara accordingly gives an elaborate classification of Artha so far as it is Anya-yoni, Nihnuta-yoni or A-yoni from the point of view of plagiarism. See below under Rājašekhara.

14 Rājasekhara attributes a dictum to Udbhata which says that the sense may be vicārita-sustha or avicārita-ramaņīya, according as it is found in the Sāstra or the Kāvya respectively. See above p. 59, fn 33.

will show that it hardly puts forward any special claim as a work of great theoretic importance, but that its value consists not in its substance but in its treatment of practical issues, its careful and minute illustration of every point by examples taken from various poets, with not a little amount of knowledge and critical discernment¹⁵.

(2)

Arisimha, Amaracandra and Devesvara

The Kāvya-kalpalatā-vṛtti of Arisimha and Amaracandra and the Kavi-kalpalatā of Devesvara, written in imitation of that work, need not detain us long. They are essentially treatises on the composition of verses, including a practical treatment of prosody and rhetoric. They furnish elaborate hints on the construction of different metres, on the display of word-skill of various kinds, on jeu de mots and tricks of producing double meaning, conundrums, riddles, alliterative and rhyming verses, and various other devices of verbal ingenuity, concluding with a chapter on the construction of similes and enumeration of parallelisms for the purpose of ordinary comparisons. It gives also a list of kavi-samayas or conventions observed by the poets, and states in detail what to describe and how to describe it. These decadent treatises, therefore, offer such adventitious aids for readymade poetry, as may—to take a particular point—be afforded, for instance, by a modern rhyming dictionary or works of similar nature.

A summary of the main topics dealt with in the Kāvyakalpalatā and its Vṛṭṭi will make the standpoint clear and give an idea of the general scope and nature of such works. The first pratāna of this work is called chandaḥ-siddhi (prosody)

¹⁵ For Ksemendra's satiric and didactic works see S. K. De, Aspects of Sansk. Lit. Calcutta 1959, pp. 279-83 and Hist. of Sansk. Lit., Calcutta 1947, pp. 404-410.

and consists of five sections on (i) the construction of the anustubh metre (anustubh-śāsana), (ii) enumeration of the principal metres, shifts in grammatical forms of the verb, Prakrit loan-words (where Hemacandra seems to be superficially quoted), transmutation of one's own or another poet's ideas into the same or different metres, conversion of one metre into another, caesura (yati), the whole section being generally entitled chandobhyāsa, (iii) use of expletive particles and words for filling up the verse (chandah-pūrana), such as śrī, sam, sat, drāk, vi, pra etc. (sāmānya-śabdaka), (iv) argumentation, pointed sayings, subjects of laudation or vituperation, interrogations, e.g. in kula-śāstrādi. sva-śāstrādhvavanaprathā etc. (vāda), (v) subjects for descriptive poetry, how to describe the king, his ministers, the prince, the army, battle and hunting, as well as a city, a village, a garden, a lake and so forth; enumeration of the kavi-samayas (varnyasthiti). The second chapter, called sabda-siddhi treats of etymology, derived meanings of compounds, alliteration and rhyme in the middle of a verse, with a list of words suitable for this purpose, enumeration of sambandhin expressions: denoted, indicated and suggested meanings, showing the influence of the Dhvani school. The next chapter, entitled ślesa-siddhi, upon play on words of various kinds, consists of the following sections: (i) composing of words in such a way that they can be read differently according as they are 'divided, with a list of slesopayogi words, (ii) a kind of slesa occurring in the description of an object by analogies, in which the same quality or condition has to be traced in the same words or in synonyms, (iii) cases of double meaning, produced by homonyms capable of widely different interpretations, (iv) ambiguity produced by similarity of inflections of different origins, (v) surprises of different kinds, such as verses in which the same consonant or vowel is repeated in each syllable, verses spread out in diagrams to be read in different ways, e.g. according to the move of the knight in chess etc:—a subject which is treated in some detail, for instance, in the Vidagdha-mukha-maṇḍana of Dharmadāsa Sūri¹⁶. The last chapter, called artha-siddhi, is devoted to the construction of similes, ellipsis and similar figures, and gives long lists of parallelisms arising from like conditions or attributes of the objects compared, e.g. the lips may be compared to the coral, to the bimba fruit or fresh-blown twigs and so forth.

A large part of this treatment is repeated in Keśava's Alamkāra-śekhara, as well as in Devesvara's Kavi-kalpalatā. the latter work being directly modelled on the Kāvya-kalpalatā with considerable plagiarism of passages in extenso These works, therefore, do not require any separate notice. Keśava's text (see vol. i, pp. 220-21 above) deals, besides this, with the ordinary topics of Poetics, set forth as the views of his master Sauddhodani, but in substance and form it follows the views of Mammata, Hemacandra and the Vagbhatas; it thus possesses hardly any claim to originality either in theory or in treatment. Most of the works of Jaina authors, even including those of Hemacandra and the Vagbhatas, are written apparently from the practical standpoint of composing a suitable text-book, and they always, in their discussion of general principles, incorporate hints on matters helpful for the practical working out of poetry¹⁷.

(3)

Rājaśekhara

Although written in a fanciful style and hardly presenting one systematic theory, Rājaśekhara's Kāvya-mīmāṃsā may be noticed here, inasmuch as it mixes up the topics of kavi-śikṣā with those of Poetics proper, at the same time giving us a somewhat rambling treatment of various extraneous matters.

¹⁶ The subject is dealt with as early as Dandin, Rudrata, and the Agni-purana.

¹⁷ E. g. Hemacandra, pp. 5-15, 126-135; the younger Vägbhata pp. 38-68. Both borrow largely from Keemendra and Räjasekara.

The work is also remarkable for its varied collection of different opinions, as well as for the light it throws on the literary practices of a certain period. Its views cannot be directly connected with any particular school, but it is quite possible that its author follows in the main a tradition of opinion inherited from his literary ancestors, whom he frequently quotes as the Yāyāvarīyas.

The origin of Poetics is attributed by Rajasekhara to the Supreme Being and the celestials, and he claims a very high position for the discipline, which is regarded as the seventh anga without which the significance of Vedic texts cannot be grasped. The self-born Śrīkantha taught this science to his sixty-four will-born disciples, among whom the most venerable was the Kāvya-puruşa, born of Sarasvatī, who figures as the nominal hero of this half-allegorical work. As Prajāpati set him to promulgate the science to the world, he imparted it to his seventeen divine pupils. Sahasrāksa and others, who embodied it in eighteen separate adhikaranas on the portions learnt by each¹⁸. Our author seeks to set forth in one book, consisting of eighteen adhikaranas, the substance of these teachings which were in his time, to some extent, lost. If we are to accept this plan of the author, only the first adhikarana on kavi-rahasya exists of this ambitious work. The Kavya-purusa, from whom metrical speech first began and who stands symbolically for the spirit of poetry. is the son born to the goddess of learning. Sarasyati, as the result of her long penance on the Himalayas. In order to keep the boy company, Sasasvatī creates Sāhitya-vidyā as his bride who follows him and wins him over. On this slight conceit the book proceeds to set forth its peculiar doctrines. including in its desultory scope various literary remarks and dogmas, as well as topics like general geography, conventions observed by poets, a disquisition on the seasons, an account of kavi-gosthi and other relevant and irrelevant subjects.

The work begins (ch. ii) by dividing literature (vānmaya) into sastra (both human and revealed) on the one hand, and kāvya, on the other. It enumerates the differnt Sastras and defines their nature and form, including under the revealed Sastras the Vedas, the Upanişads, and the six angas (the Yāyāvarīyas taking Alamkāra-śāstra as the seventh), and comprehending under human Sastras the Puranas, Itihasa, Anvikşikî, the two Mīmāmsās and the Smrtis. It then mentions fourteen (or eighteen) vidyā-sthānas, bringing under it several technical and philosophical disciplines. The meanings of the terms sūtra, vrtti, bhāsya, samīksā, tīkā, pañiikā, kārikā and vārttika, which are the different forms or styles of the Sastras, are then explained, incidentally giving an etymological definition of sahitya-vidyā¹⁹. Then, after a digression (ch. iii) on the fable of the Kavya-puruşa, the author goes on to deal (ch. iv) with the different kinds of pupils to whom a knowledge of the science can be imparted, viz. buddhimat and āhārya-buddhi, the latter of whom may be again anyathā-buddhi and durbuddhi. and discusses in this connexion the force of śakti (genius), pratibhā (poetic imagination), vyutpatti (culture) and abhyāsa (practice). The Yāyāvarīyas think that sakti is the only source of poetry and it gives rise to pratibhā and vyutpatti; but others hold that the aid of concentration (samādhi) and practice (abh) āsa) is also required. The pratibhā20 may have a twofold aspect, according as it is creative (kārayitrī) or discriminative (bhāvayitrī). The creative faculty may be natural (sahaja), adventitious (āhārya) or acquired by instruction (aupadeśika), and poets are accordingly classified as sārasvata, ābhāyasika and aupadešika. The discriminative faculty (bhāvakatva) is distinguished from the poetic (kavitva). The bhāvaka may be either 'the dicontented' (arocakinah, i.e. those who possess the faculty but

¹⁹ Sec above p. 37, fn 5.

²⁰ Defined as: yā śabda-grāmam artha-sārtham alamkāra-tantram mukti-mārgam anyad api tathāvidham adhihīdayam pratibhāsayati sā pratibhā.

require to be guided), 'those feeding on grass' (satṛṇābhyava-hāriṇaḥ, i.e., vulgar persons absolutely devoid of the faculty²¹), 'the envious' (matsariṇaḥ) and lastly, 'the really discerning' (tattvābhinivesinaḥ) who are rare.

In the next chapter (ch. v) we have elaborate classifications. of the poet from different points of view. Poets may be grouped generally into three classes, the śāstra-kavi, the kāvya kavi and the ubhaya-kavi. The śāstra-kavi may either compose the śāstra, or produce kāvya-effect in the Śāstra or śāstra-effect in the Kāvya. The kāvya-kavi is classified elaborately, if not very logically, into eight groups, viz. racanā-kavi, śabda-kavi, artha-kavi, alamkāra-kavi, ukti-kavi, rasa-kavi, mārga-kavi, and sastrartha-kavi. Then we have an enumeration of ten grades of apprenticeship through which a poet has to pass until he becomes a kavi-rāia, which is indeed not the highest distinction but which, according to Rajasekhara who was himself so designated, indicates a status even higher than that of a mahākavi. Elsewhere in ch. x, he gives an account of the test or literary examination of poets for such honour and recognition, in which the successful poet was conveyed in a special chariot and crowned with a fillet (patta-bandha). He speaks also of purity of body, speech and thought necessary for a poet, and describes the house of the poet, his attendants, his writing materials, the division of his whole day into eight parts and duties appropriate thereto. The chapter under discussion concludes with a reference to the theory of pāka²², of which as many as nine varieties, named after the taste of different fruits, are mentioned.

The next chapter (ch. vi) deals with the word and the sentence, and their functions grammatical, logical or otherwise. In this connexion Rājaśekhara states that a sentence possessing the literary excellences (guṇas) and embellished by poetic figures (alaṃkāras) constitutes poetry (guṇavad alaṃkṛtaṃ ca vākyam

²¹ Cf Vāmana 1, 2, 1-3,

²² See above pp. 240-42.

eva kāvyam, p. 24). If any definite conclusion can be drawn from this statement, Rājaśekhara, in general theory, appears to recognise tacitly the position of the Rīti school; for in this sentence he reproduces Vāmana's well-known dictum (kāvyaśabdo'yam guṇālaṃkāra-saṃskṛtayoḥ śabdārthayor vartate. on i. 1. 1). This is supported also by the apparent disfavour he shows towards the view of Udbhata and Rudrata, as well as by the marked partiality attached to the opinions of Mangala and Vamana, whose classification of Rīti is accepted on p. 31. It is true that his school lays special stress also on Rasa23, and like most writers coming after Anandavardhana, Rājasekhara does not fail to bring Rasa into prominence. This makes it difficult to take his work as framed definitely for any particular system. But it is clear that his sympathies ally him with the older Rīti and Rasa schools, rather than with the new school of Anandavardhana who, though cited at p. 16, does not appear to have influenced his views greatly. It is probable that he is following some old tradition, which stands apart from orthodox schools, but which has many things in common with the older currents of thought and opinion.

The rest of the work, devoted to topics of a similar character, does not throw any further light on his general view of Poetics. The seventh chapter, which comes next, analyses modes of speech on a novel basis, having reference to the promulgation of different religious doctrines, into brāhma, saiva and vaiṣṇava, with their sectarian subdivisions; and after a brief mention of the three Rītis of Vāmana²⁴, we have some remarks on Kāku and on the methods of reading or pronunciation of different peoples, incidentally discussing the question of appropriate language and style of gods.

²³ E.g. kim tu rasavata eva nibandho yuktah, na nirasasya p. 45.

²⁴ Rajasekhara's account of the origin of Ritis is curious. He says that on account of the Sahitya-vidya's wanderings through various countries, different poetic forms evolved themselves, the important among them being the three Ritis mentioned by Vamana.

Apsarasas, Pisacas etc. The eighth chapter enumerates the sources or auxiliaries of poetry (kāvya-yonayaḥ), already referred to by Bhāmaha (i. 9) and Vāmana (i. 3), such as the scriptures, the law-books, the epics, the Puranas etc., and gives a long list of arts and sciences, as well as philosophical systems, which contribute to the content of poetry25. The next chapter (ch. ix) is concerned with the possible themes of poetry, topically referred to by Anandavardhana (p. 146), according as it deals with incidents and personages, human, divine, or pertaining to the lower world (pātāla), by themselves or in different combinations. But he adds that the subject-matter must be rasavat. The tenth chapter speaks of the conduct of a poet, his household and surroundings, his daily duties and routine of work; it then proceeds to speak of the king who patronises him, and one of whose duties is to call assemblies of poets and scholars. Two very interesting chapters (xi-xii) follow on the elaborate²⁴ classification of the different shades of borrowing or plagiarism (harana), with reference respectively to borrowing of words and borrowing

25 These are: śruti, smṛti, itihāsa, purāṇa, pramāṇa-vidyā, samaya-vidyā, rāja-siddhānta-trayī (artha-śāstra, nāṭya-śāstra and kāma-śāstra). loka, viracanā (=kavi-manīṣā-nirmitaṃ kathā-tantram artha-mātraṃ vā), and prakīrṇaka (miscellaneous, like hasti-śikṣā, ratna-parīkṣā, dhanur-veda etc.). In ch. x. he speaks of (i) kāvya-vidyās, viz. nāma-dhātu-pārāyaṇa (=grammar), abhidhāna-kośa (lexicon), chando-viciti (prosody) and alaṃkāra (poetics), (ii) sixty-four kalās, called upavidyās (accessory studies) and (iii) kāvya-mātaraḥ, viz. kavi-saṃnidhi, deśa-vārttā, vidagdḥa-vāda, loka-yātrā, vidvad-goṣṭhī, and purātana-kavi-nibandha.

26 Hemacandra (pp. 8f) and Vägbhata (pp. 12f) plagiarise and reproduce this portion of Räjasekhara's treatment and draw also partly upon Ksemendra (see above p. 287f). On these passages, see F. W. Thomas in Bhandarkar Commemoration Volume, pp. 379-383). To Anandavardhana's classification of three kinds of resemblance which may be found in two poets (see above p. 287 fn 12) these writers add a fourth kind, viz. "foreign-city-entrance" likeness (parapura-praveša-pratimatā), i. e. where there is substantial identity, but the garnishing is widely different. And of these four kinds, the superiority is in the ascending order.

of ideas. A verse is cited towards the end which says that there is hardly any poet who does not steal' from others, but the best of stealing is cleverly concealing the fact²⁷. But mere reflection or copying of ideas is condemned as unpoetical (so'yam kaver akavitva-dayī sarvathā pratibimba kalpah pariharaniyah, p. 68). The true poet is said to be one who discovers something novel in the expression of words and ideas, as well as restates what is olds. The next chapter (ch. xiii), therefore, details thirty-two different modes by which plagiarism or literary borrowing may be skilfully turned to advantage (a question which must have assumed some importance in Rajasekhara's time), all the points in these interesting chapters being profusely illustrated by examples drawn from the works of various poets. This discussion is followed by three chapters (ch. xiv-xvi) on the established poetic conventions (kavi-samaya), with reference to countries, trees, plants, flowers etc., as well as about intangible things (e. g. a smile should always be described as white). There are twomore chapters (ch. xvii-xviii) on geography (deśa-vibhāga) and the seasons (kāla-vibhāga) respectively, the former mentioning. the countries, rivers, mountains etc. of India, the products peculiar to each, the colour and complexion of various. peoples, and the latter describing the winds, flowers and birds, and actions appropriate to various seasons.

This bare outline of the eighteen chapters of the Kāvya-mīmāṃsā, so far as it is available and actually published, will make it clear that nearly the whole of its content falls, strictly speaking, outside the province of general Poetics, whose conventional topics have thus far been hardly touched upon. At the same time, some of the subjects dealt with by Rājašekhara have been referred to, if not claborately dealt.

²⁷ nāsty acauraķ kavi-jano nāsty acauro vaņig-janaķ | sa nandati vinā vācyam yo jānāti nigūkitum | |

²⁸ Sabdārthoktişu yah pasyed iha kimcana nütanam | ullikhet kimcana prācya:p manyatām sa mahākavih | |

with, by even orthodox writers like Vāmana; and the unique evidence of the comparatively early work of Rajasekhara on this topic, written ostensibly in conformity with some old tradition, will go to support the hypothesis that sahitya or the art of poetry originally included in its comprehensive scope all such varied literary topics, until there was a gradual branching off of kavi-śiksā as an allied but separate discipline, and a limiting of the Sastra itself to the discussion of more or less general principles. In themselves, however, these topics are extremely interesting and throw a great deal of light on some of the literary aspects of classical Sanskrit Poetry and its practice, They are made all the more delightful reading by Rājaśekhara's concise but easy and picturesque style, especially as it is enriched by judiciously selected and varied illustrations, very unlike the conventional illustrations one meets with in an ordinary text-book on Poetics.

SUBJECT-INDEX

TO

Vol. II

Entries are confined to those passages which contain a substantive reference to, and not mere citation of, the persons, works or subjects indicated. The figures denote pages, and references to footnotes are marked with an asterisk. Occasional references to vol. i are given with figure i. The following abbreviations are used: fig=poetic figure; Agp=Agnipurāna: Anv=Anandavardhana: Abh=Abhinavagupta; Bh=Bharata; Bhā=Bhāmaha; Bh N=Bhatta Nāyaka; Bhanu=Bhanudatta; D=Dandin; Dh=Dhananjaya: Dhk=Dhvanikāra; Hc=Hemacandra; Jg=Jagan-Knt=Kuntaka; Ks=Ksemendra; L=Lollata; nātha: Mmt=Mammata; Mkc=Mānikyacandra; Mbh=Mahimabhatta; Rdt=Rudrata; Rk=Ruyyaka; Ud=Udbhata; Vg I=the older Vāgbhaṭa; Vg II=the younger Vāgbhaṭa; Vm=Vāmana; Vis=Visvanātha; Vid=Vidyādhara; Vin= Vidyānātha; Snbh=Śingabhūpāla.

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ADDITIONS AND CORRECTIONS

Vol. i. p. 99. Add the following as fn. 4. to 1. 12: For a review of the Alamkāra-section in the Agni-purāna see Suresh Mohan Bhattacharya in Bulletin of DCRI, xx, pt. i, pp. 42-49.

p. 202, fn 1. 1. 2 Read sabdā- (for sadhā-).

p 292, No. 69, Read BHĀSYA

p. 294, in 1, Read Catalogue after Tanjore.

Vol. ii. p. 141. 1. 28. Read kusūgriyayū

p. 173, 1. 2 and p. 183, 1. 28. Read *śruti-kaṣṭa* both in places.

p. 204, 1. 13 Read prasastatā.